THE SURVEY

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All issues of The Survey are indexed in the Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature, to be found in most public and college libraries.

The Gist of It

PITTSBURGH was a long time in discovering the soft coal strike on its very doorstep (see The Survey for March 1, page 690). But once awakened, it has done a notable job in organizing relief for miners' families. EDWARD N. CLOPPER, who drafted the plan and is in charge of its operation, is executive secretary of the Pittsburgh Federation of Social Agencies. Page 85.

J. PENNYROYAL is an indefatigable conference "hound" who no doubt will meet his many friends at Memphis and perhaps at Paris. Page 88.

N. B. BOND is professor of sociology at the University of Mississippi and secretary of the Mississippi Conference of Social Work. Page 89.

WILLIAM J. NORTON is secretary of the Detroit Community Fund. Page 90.

THE monumental report of the survey of city and county parks just published by the Playground and Recreation Association of America, is summarized by MABEL TRAVIS WOOD, a member of the staff of that organization. Page 95.

SOME of the economic whys and wherefores of New York, presented in the first volume of the Regional Plan of that city are here reviewed by H. W. DODDS, secretary of the National Municipal League. Page 98.

ZONA GALE, poet, novelist, playwright, and friend of humanity, read this tribute to Mrs. Simkhovitch (page 100) at the twenty-fifth birthday party of Greenwich House, at which Miss Gale was once a resident. She it was who wrote the children's pageant, Robin Hood in Jones Street, which employed the lone ailanthus tree, shown in the drawing on page 100, as Sherwood Forest.

ADELINE E. DARTT, formerly a member of the staff of the Jewish Board of Guardians in New York City, is now psychiatric social worker at the joint family welfare clinic maintained by three New York agencies. Page 101.

NEW light on new penology in Massachusetts is projected in the articles by CHARLES A. GATES, executive secretary of the advisory council on crime prevention in the commonwealth (page 103), and EVA L. SIMMONS, who is in charge of the remedial social work under the Department of Correction. Page 104.

WHAT is the boy problem? asked the St. Louis Community Council. BERTHA B. HOWELL tells some of the answers it found. Page 105.

VIRGINIA McCORMICK is a member of the staff at the central offices of the American Nurses' Association in New York City. Page 107.

DR. ARTHUR W. BINGHAM is president of the medical board of Willard Parker Hospital, New York. Page 109.

CHARLES S. JOHNSON is editor of Opportunity—Journal of Negro Life, published by the National Urban League. Page 113.

MARY DEWHURST BLANKENHORN is executive secretary of the Consumers' League of New York. Page 115.

JOHN A. FITCH, long a member of The Survey staff, is director of industrial courses at the New York School of Social Work. Page 116.

E. L. THORNDIKE is professor of educational psychology at Teachers' College, Columbia University. The article on page 118 is from a chapter of his Adult Education, to be published this month by the Macmillan Company under the auspices of the American Association for Adult Education.

W. CARSON RYAN, Jr., is a member of the Department of Education at Swarthmore College. Page 120.

NELLIE M. SEEDS is executive secretary of the Manumit School at Pawling, N. Y. Page 121.

ARTHUR DUNHAM is secretary of the Child Welfare Division of the Public Charities Association of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia. Page 128.

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WINTER STREET IN THE PITTSBURGH DISTRICT

Drawn for The Survey by Mabel K. Day

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THE SURVEY
MIDMONTHLY

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Pittsburgh Unites for Relief

By EDWARD N. CLOPPER

IN mid-November Pittsburgh was shocked by a terrific explosion of a gas tank. Twenty-nine persons were killed, many buildings were wrecked and hundreds of families made homeless. Working under the leadership of the Pittsburgh Chapter of the American Red Cross, forty-one other social agencies that had immediately offered their services continued to aid in different ways for weeks after the disaster. No less than 883 families were given attention of some kind because of the explosion.

While the city was still busy with the care of these unfortunates and with the reconstruction of damaged buildings, the strike of the bituminous coal miners, which had been in effect for several months, took on a more dramatic aspect and began to attract more general attention as winter came on, because of the increasing number of union families required to move out of dwelling-houses owned by coal companies. The union was constructing barracks in mine neighborhoods to house the striking miners and their families and, naturally, popular interest was somewhat aroused by this unusual condition. And yet, even as late as the latter part of November, newspapers declared "striking miners may be destitute but there has been no intense suffering so far and prospects are they will spend a relatively comfortable winter." Photographs were published—of strikers and their families in the newly-built barracks, "living nicely in union-owned homes." Secretary of Labor Davis announced a plan to bring operators and strikers together to effect a settlement, and newspapers heralded "Peace in western Pennsylvania mine fields by Christmas." But time wore on and no signs of peace could be discerned.

The weather grew colder, more families were evicted, and more barracks erected. Sympathizing folk were sending clothing to the strikers, and local churches and fraternal bodies started to give relief here and there, in scattered mining villages of Allegheny County. Then came the Rev. F. Ernest Johnson of the Federal Council of Churches, who looked at the situation and on December 2, impressed upon the Social Service Commission of the Pittsburgh Council of Churches the duty, as he saw it, of the organized religious forces to prevent suffering. A few days later he met the commission again with social workers present; several good women from a local church came to the meeting and told of "dire need" among coal miners' families.

The commission was convinced of the need for action of a non-partisan character and asked the Rev. J. C. H. Sauber, Charles C. Cooper, of Kingsley House, and the writer to prepare and submit a plan. This was drawn up next day, recommending that the Pittsburgh Council of Churches ask local relief and case-working organizations to create a temporary central bureau to determine the amount of relief required for the families of union and non-union coal miners in Allegheny County; to provide the necessary skilled service for the distribution of relief; and to report to a central committee of clergymen, to be formed through invitation by the council to leaders in all denominations for the purpose of raising a fund for the families in distress. On the following day the council authorized its president, the Rev. W. I. Wishart, to call together the social and religious leaders of Pittsburgh, as recommended.

THE Pittsburgh Council of Churches consists of eleven Protestant denominations; and clergymen of these and also of the Lutheran, German Protestant, Unitarian, Roman Catholic, Eastern Orthodox, and Jewish faiths, thirty-three in all, signed a letter of appeal to all churches and to the public in general, for gifts to supply necessaries to coal miners' families found in want by the trained and experienced social workers who would be in charge of the work.

On December 12, twenty social workers representing fifteen agencies, met at the request of the council's Social Service Commission, of which the Rev. Ralph B. Urmy is chairman, and organized as a central relief committee, appointing an executive committee of six members and electing the writer as chairman and Rose Porter, of the Mothers' Assistance Fund, as secretary. Several agencies at once agreed to assign members of their staffs to help in the relief work,

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although they were under heavy pressure because of increasing demands upon them arising from general unemployment and the following up of families affected by the recent explosion. A little later, the county commissioners gave space in a public building for use as relief headquarters and on New Year's Day the service was begun, with Clara McDonnell of the Associated Charities in charge, assisted by workers from the Salvation Army, the Association for the Improvement of the Poor, the Lutheran Inner Mission Society, the M. E. Church Union, and the Social Service Exchange.

BY this time widespread sympathy had been aroused. The newspapers had published pictures of families moving their household goods, in mid-winter snow, into the rough and hastily constructed barracks; a "Bundle Day" had been held by the newspapers and United Mine Workers for collection and distribution of clothing for men, women, and children in the striking miners' camps; theatrical folk were giving special entertainments as benefits, and actors and actresses were taking food out to the barracks.

Senator Johnson had introduced into the Senate at Washington a resolution calling for an investigation into conditions in the coal fields of western Pennsylvania, West Virginia, and Ohio, and a sub-committee of the Senate Committee on Interstate Commerce, with Senator Gooding of Idaho as its chairman, was appointed to look into the situation. In the meantime, Senator Wheeler of Montana visited some of the mining communities of Allegheny County and the newspapers gave a good deal of space to his vigorous portrayal of what he had seen. Then the senatorial subcommittee, with Mr. Wheeler as a member, went over the ground in a few days and drew a vivid picture of conditions.

By this time the strike and the plight of the strikers had come to be a matter of major importance in the public mind. Visitors were coming from far and near to view conditions, and relief was being forwarded from distant points. Local newspapers brought in special writers and their emphatic and colorful reports stirred Pittsburgh deeply.

ON February 1, fifty of the leading business men of the city met and heard a strong plea for generous action on behalf of suffering families from W. L. Monro, president of the American Window Glass Company. They promptly organized the Pittsburgh Business Men's Relief Committee with A. K. Oliver as chairman, and substantial gifts at once were made to its treasurer. An account was given of the work already done by the Clergymen's Committee and social workers, and the chairman declared that the purpose of the new organization was to relieve distress found among coal miners and their families, quite apart from the economic controversy, and that the relief would be administered only through trained and experienced social workers, thus assuring impartial and effective use of funds.

Next day the executive committees of the Business Men's and Clergymen's Committees, in a joint meeting, decided to maintain their separate identities but to unite in administration of their funds through the group of social workers already engaged in the task of relief and to provide for increasing their number in order to carry on the enterprise on the larger scale made possible by the additional resources. The machinery was at once reorganized, with Nell Scott, case work supervisor for the Associated Charities, as director of the field work, Miss McDonnell continuing in charge at headquarters; additional social workers were engaged until a staff of fifteen on full time was at work, volunteers enlisted, and the group continued its task under the new name of Joint Relief Administration. The Catholic Charities, the International Institute, the Allegheny General Hospital Social Service, and the Council of Jewish Women released members of their staffs; the American Red Cross took over the work in two mining villages; and the Mothers' Assistance Fund workers lent their aid.

Four sub-stations for the distribution of relief were opened at strategic points in mining communities, and from them workers go out into most of Allegheny County and into portions of Washington County. Operations are conducted entirely upon a family basis, each family reported in distress being visited by a social worker who determines the need, ascertains its resources, and supplements these by donations.

THE chief source of relief for striking miners and their families is, of course, the allowances from the United Mine Workers. In addition, relief is being given by the Pennsylvania and Ohio Miners' Relief Committee; by the Rt. Rev. Hugh Boyle, Roman Catholic bishop of the Diocese of Pittsburgh, whose fund for the purpose is administered by parish priests; by the county directors of the poor; and by the local groups here and there.

Instead of purchasing food supplies in wholesale lots, which would have made necessary the establishment and maintenance of local supply depots for their distribution as well as incurred additional expense for transportation and personnel, the Joint Relief Administration issues orders on local dealers. Miners' wives do the purchasing themselves at stores they have been accustomed to patronize, presenting orders from the social workers who have determined the need in each case and estimated the value of groceries, shoes, and other articles required. The local dealers then send their bills with the corresponding orders to relief headquarters. Blankets, underclothing, stockings, and such standardized goods are, however, bought at wholesale, and a considerable quantity of second-hand clothing has been distributed.

In a praiseworthy effort to substitute wholesome activities for the unfortunate tendencies often encountered under the circumstances, especially among the young folks, the Pittsburgh Girls' Conference is organizing athletic sports and other recreational devices, and also is planning educational service for adults.

In Allegheny County alone, seventy-three different companies have coal mines, many of them not in operation now and most of them small. The largest company has seventeen mines in the county. The Joint Relief Administration, with its limited staff of workers, reaches fifty mining villages in Allegheny and Washington Counties from its four substations, besides twelve which are reached by individual workers from headquarters. Twenty-nine other villages have been visited. At present, 1,263 families have been registered in the Social Service Exchange by the workers, this being the number concerning which the Joint Relief Administration has been able to make some decision as to aid. Of these, over four hundred have been given food, milk, and shoes, while many others have received clothing.

It must be clearly understood that these figures represent only a part of the picture. They are given here simply to indicate the work so far done in a restricted area by the social workers for the Business Men's and Clergymen's Relief Committees. If more money and more trained workers were available, the figures would greatly increase.

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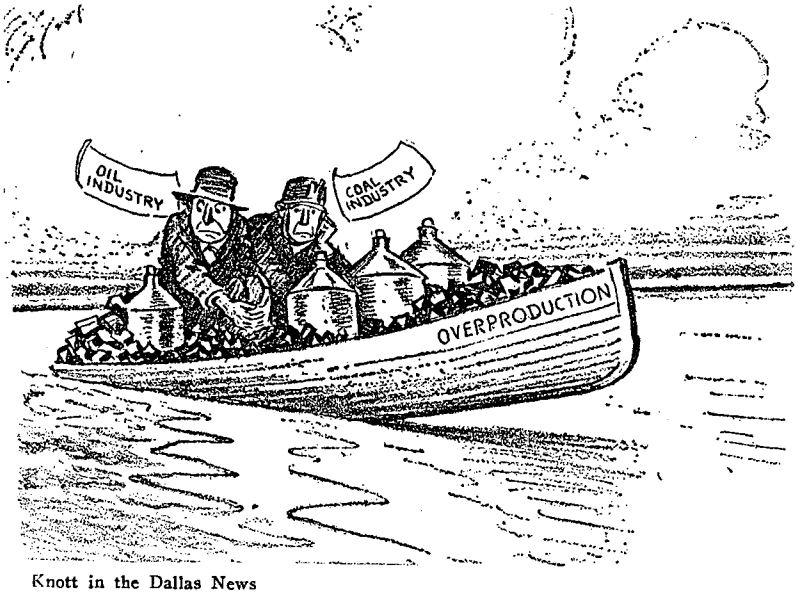
Hounding the Yellow Dog

By ROBERT W. BRUÈRE

FOR a good many years, that strange beast known in the world of labor as the "yellow dog" has been running at large in American industry, spreading terror and perplexity. If he were a pedigreed German police dog, a bull terrier, a Grossmannstein or even a Schnauzer, the judges would know what to do with him. Being the thing he is, he is hounded from one jurisdiction to another. The chances are that he will never find a home or a decent burial until the inexpert and harassed public takes serious account of him.

What is this "yellow dog"? Who or what fathered him? Who turned him loose? So far as I, a layman, have been able to discover, his great-great-great-grandmother came from the kennels of the late Mark Hanna, his common-law father was Conspiracy, familiarly known through the statutory breed fancied by the late John Sherman.

What seems to have happened was something like this. Back in the eighties and nineties, the bituminous coal industry, never able to practice birth control, had produced, as it has heedlessly continued to do ever since, too many mines, too many operators, too many miners, too much coal. As prices dropped, operators cut wages; as wages became cut-throat, miners organized in self-defense. Operators cried Conspiracy, called in the sheriff, and chased the agitators all over the lot.



Knott in the Dallas News

"The bituminous coal industry, never able to practice birth control, had produced, as it has heedlessly continued to do ever since, too many mines, too many operators, too many miners, too much coal."

Some operators, notably Mark Hanna, considered this foolish business. They encouraged the miners in their territory to unionize with the understanding that the union would carry on its organizing campaign in other fields and equalize competitive conditions—standardize hours and wages at a humane level and so stabilize the industry. After a rough and difficult start, the union made great headway. In due course, it organized all of the older coal fields, particularly what is known as the Central Competitive Field—Illinois, Indiana, Ohio and a large slice of Pennsylvania. Up to the time of the War, the combined efforts of the union and the operators in this vast territory went far to stabilize the industry to everybody's gain.

But during and immediately after the War, there was a rapid expansion of bituminous coal mining into what are known as the newer fields, especially West Virginia. These fields, in part because they were off the main highways of commerce, were at a competitive disadvantage even though, being new, their coal was more accessible. They met this disadvantage by undercutting the union scale and barring out the union.

The operators in the older fields put it up to the union to make good on their moral obligation to equalize competitive conditions throughout the industry. The union made the attempt—spent millions of dollars, almost exhausted its resources in the effort. The bitterness of the struggle bred violence on both sides—in each case in defense of "sacred human rights and moral principles." The union lost the battle, or, at least, has not won it to date. The newer fields, operating far below the union scale, have taken more and more of the market from the old fields.

For years, operators in these older fields have appealed to the union for relief. In 1924, the union, supported by distinguished members of the federal government, asked for three more years time. The operators of the Central Competitive Field reluctantly signed the Jacksonville agreement, which ran to April 1, 1927. Before it expired, however, a number of the largest operators, notably some who had workings in or contiguous to the newer fields, broke away; some of them closed down; some broke the agreement, or tried to save their faces by skirting around it. Increasingly, they have claimed their inability to operate in the face of such a wage differential. In 1927, practically all of them refused to renew the Jacksonville scale. The present strike was on.

The economic and other causes behind this development are complex. One important contributing cause, however, was the "yellow dog," the name by which the union expresses its feeling for the type of individual wage agreement under which the employer binds the employe as a condition of employment not to join the union or hold any converse with its representatives. The union contends that such a pledge is inequitable, unconstitutional, immoral—on the same footing with a pledge against joining a church, a fraternity, or a political party. The classic case is that of the Hitchman Coal & Coke Co. vs. Mitchell. This company required miners seeking employment with it to pledge themselves not to join the union. When the union, in fulfillment of its obligation to (*Continued on page* 134)

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A Conference Program Conceived in Malice

By J. PENNYROYAL

I HAVE attended what I hope is a decent quota of conferences on social work, and I have wistfully conned the programs of many more. Wistfully, I hasten to explain, not because of what these programs offered, but because of what they failed to offer. None of the multifarious sections, divisions, groups and Lord-knows-what has hit upon the topics that seem to me really interesting. In this pre-conference season, when it is the fashion to do one's job instead of talk about it, I shall therefore comfort myself by jotting down a short list of papers I do not expect to find on any program—but wouldn't I rush to hear them if I did!

I might begin with An Epidemiological Study of the Conference Habit. There must be some reason why this germ spreads so virulently in certain sections of the calendar and certain quarters of the globe. May, for example, is late in the year for nasopharyngeal disorders, yet it is filled with the drone of public speakers. It was possible last spring for a social worker with a comfortable travel budget to spend practically the whole month in the semi-coma of conference rooms. He might have considered Jewish social work, settlement work, common or garden social work, tuberculosis, and the relation of health to the family budget, almost without stopping. The same congestion afflicts the near neighbors of social work—the sociologists and their kin—at Christmas time, though why the Christmas meetings should be called "learned" and the May meetings should just be meetings I can't make out: both are filled to capacity with large words and a solemn manner. And why in heaven's name when people have come together for one conference in one place should they clamor for a dozen more conferences all around the fringe, until the delegate's day looks like a broken kaleidoscope and a too-hospitable town is all bogged up with palavers. Something could be learned about these phenomena, I suspect, by the people who work out by logarithms the incidence of scarlet-fever germs at a lobster party.

Next on my program I should schedule an address on The Gift of Tongues in Social Work. The early Christians who bragged of the rhapsodies in which they were completely unintelligible to their fellow-worshippers had nothing on the community organizer or the mental hygienist in full cry. I remember taking what I thought was a dignified appeal letter to a somnolent critic who happened to be chairman of a finance committee. He read the draft through without comment, leaned back, closed his eyes, and seemed to pass gently into oblivion. After a soundless interval he murmured: "Personally, I have always preferred the language of Genesis." I was annoyed at the time (though I rewrote the letter). Since then I have come to agree with him.

But there is a trace of protective coloration in the jargon of the social worker, and you can't argue or laugh that away. Passionately desirous as he is of a place in the professional sun, he reads enviously the journals of the older and better recognized professions. Finding them exquisitely inscrutable, he seeks a similar badge for his calling and election. He must have a terminology, by gum, or he isn't scientific. And if he isn't scientific how can he escape a nagging sense of inferiority when he deals with money, as in the case of his board, or with erudition, as in the case of his neighbors on the campus?

Speaking of boards reminds me of the delicate balance that is maintained between the people who pay social work salaries and those who receive them. There is an art—and a pretty subtle one at times—of what might be called creative listening, of hearing your president speak his mind and then gently twining him around your finger till he approves *your* plan. The social work executive sometimes seems determined to defend, at all costs, his intellectual virginity. Shifting the metaphor slightly, I shall ask him to read a paper on The Eugenical Sterilization of Everybody's Program but Mine.

This, of course, is distinctly an executive's problem. Most conferences are planned to provide nice, kind, educational features for the junior staff, but I think this is the wrong track. It is the man in the corner office, with the plate-glass top on his desk, who needs educating, for it is he who hires and fires, who dominates staff decisions, who mediates between the case worker and the pillar of society. What an audience there would be for a discussion of The Jehovah Complex in General Secretaries! It works in so many fascinating forms, positive and negative, that a whole conference might be devoted to its ramifications. There is, for example, the executive who loves to play providence to all his colleagues, who advises them as to their place of residence, their personal budgets, their choice of vacations, and even their matrimonial dilemmas. And there is the other kind who is too busy to be seen, and whose subordinates speak when they are spoken to. There is the executive who hands down his ukases, and there is the other sort who always approaches a chalk-line of decision by circling a round-table, who confers endlessly with one foot in the Rubicon. For this particular species, I want to work up a meeting on A Time-Study of Democratic Procedure.

ALLIED with this is the subject of Posture in the Social Worker. I have learned quietly to avoid, with loathing, the man or woman who is always Looking Forward. Nor do I love the kind who are always Looking Backward, but, unlike Bellamy, usually take their stand in yesterday and look backward to day-before-yesterday. I should like to hear a thorough discussion of the question whether either posture doesn't lead inevitably to a Stiff Neck. And in passing I hope some one will pay his respects to the man who Leans Over Backward to be Fair and Reasonable, and who sometimes loses his balance entirely in the process. It's pretty hard to see yourself as others see you when you're leaning over backward for any purpose whatever.

Thanks to Frankwood Williams and his kind, we are,

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however, beginning to hang a mirror or two in our conference halls. It is not wholly unthinkable that some fine day we may hear a paper called Psychiatric Social Work Begins at Home. In fact an article by Grace Marcus in The Survey some months ago leaned very strongly in this direction. And what a rich field for speculation it is! We ought to turn inside out, for example, the Sacrifice Motive, and find out just what happens inside the social worker who accepts, year after year, a starvation wage, while she feeds her soul on the cakes and ale of conscious virtue and her so-called profession stands stock still. We might find out a lot about what the pink-cheeked experts call personnel problems if we started to sleuth out some of the things people think about when they don't know they're thinking—or the things they draw on their telephone pads when central dallies. . . . This, I fear, would be an all-day session, and I don't know of any conference hall big enough to contain it.

But let's not be altogether introspective: Let's consider also the public. I want to hear a paper on Reverse English, or How to Make Publicity Work Both Ways. I admire enormously the neat-fingered publicity man who can "sell" any social work idea to any clientele (provided, of course, you allow him a bit of hokum), while the collector follows after and gets the cash. But I wonder sometimes why it is given to us, alone of all mankind, to know so much about how our neighbors ought to spend their tithes and conscience-money. Robert W. Kelso tells us that we are trustees, responsible to the public for a task which the public wants to have done. Maybe so, but I fancy God is still on the side of the heaviest salesmanship. Publicity is pretty much a one-way street. Our ideas must be put over, and probably the public hasn't any ideas anyway. I should like to hear of a publicity device that lures or prods the giver into an honest opinion of his own about the way he wants his money spent, and even gets a rise now and then out of the client. I heard with bated breath, a year or two ago, of an institution for the blind which, after some gesture of democracy by the self-constituted board, had kicked over the traces. The blind folks elected their own board, gave the staff notice, and started all over again. I never heard the sequel: I fear that a compromise was only effected. It would have been amusing to see the thing through.

Of course some one may turn the tables on me at this conference. I may find myself tightly wedged into the front row under the accusing finger of a speaker who busies himself with The Rehabilitation of Cynics and Other Defectives. But I'm willing. There would be a full house, anyhow.

Memphis and the Changing South

By N. B. BOND

AFTER almost a decade of wanderings North, East, and West, the National Conference of Social Work again comes South to meet in Memphis, May 2-9. The discerning social worker who looks out over the Mississippi from the Memphis bluffs will see a rapidly changing economic, industrial, and social order now transforming the conservative and relatively isolated South of the past into a land of expanding industry and new social situations. That a new day is dawning no one questions; just what its sun will disclose is anybody's guess.

Previous to 1915 the South experienced a half century of thwarted aspirations which resulted in a psychology that bordered on fatalism. Religionists seized upon the situation and made great headway with predestinarianism and other forms of other-worldliness. Scarcity of coal and iron deposits seemed to close the door to economic freedom; single-crop agriculture with planter, Negro, and poor whites, built class and race traditions doubly fortified by antebellum and reconstruction memories; and, finally, there was set up that peasant-producing process of draining off from a rural South the best of its young men and women.

The psychology and biology of this combination of circumstances was deadening to the entire social structure. The South was in a rut that was becoming a grave. To be sure, in some fertile areas there continued to flourish a local culture and social order but little different from that of the pre-Lincoln era; and these areas have, until the adoption of the direct primary, furnished most southern political leaders. But these areas and leaders have never more than partially represented the real South. The old leadership took all bearings from an order that had passed, and it largely overlooked the great masses of small white farmers in the hills and timbered regions who alone afforded the human potentiality for the building of the New South. These had little or no leadership. Their agriculture was not business enterprise but a self-sufficing farming which afforded only a bare existence. By and large they had no outlook, and an introverted psychology dominated. Hence the natural urges found expression in channels not altogether wholesome.

Slowly capital from the North began to seek the pine and hardwood forests of the South, limited however to extractive phases. Thus the process of industrialization began. Then followed a period marked by a gradual comprehension of the industrial possibilities of the South and a slow emerging of the new southern bourgeoisie. Agricultural colleges were teaching diversification and the benefits of dairying.

Then came the most potent factor that has yet appeared in southern life, namely, high tension transmission of hydro-electric power. This opened the door to economic freedom, and it has made possible a wholesome balance between agriculture and manufacturing. It has revolutionized the entire southern outlook and is rapidly affecting industrialization with its concomitant and resultant situations. While the South is predominantly rural and agricultural and will doubtless continue so in large degree, it is now recognized by all who carefully view the possibilities that industrialization and urbanization will be limited only by the energy and initiative of Southerners and any greater desirability of agriculture that may develop. Add to this the congestion of population, industry, and capital now being felt in some other sections and it becomes (*Continued on page* 133)

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The Chest and Democracy

By WILLIAM J. NORTON

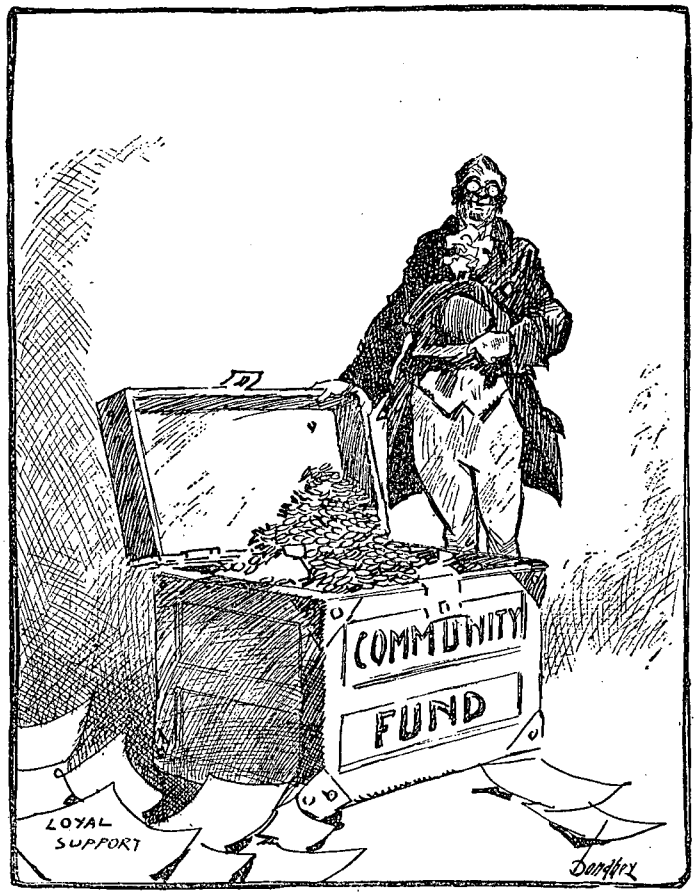
MR. JOSEPH LEE'S attack, in The Survey of March 15, upon an interpretation of the community chest movement that appeared in the November Graphic under my name, would merit no attention if he had not been guilty of certain inaccuracies of fact, and of misinterpretations of isolated phrases and sentences that pervert the true meaning of the Graphic article. I wrote in November, not as a missionary hoping to convert the Bostonese or any other laggards in administrative progress (I don't believe in intervention in either Nicaragua or Boston), but rather as one whose long experience in social work, and particularly in the cooperative movement, might be offered to help the five or six million supporters of philanthropy in community chest cities to a better understanding of the social and spiritual values of the thing they are fostering. That the picture of a general condition and a general attitude of an age that is passing should have been taken personally, and irritated any of philanthropy's fine-spirited friends, is to be regretted. I am sorry for that and offer my apologies.

Mr. Lee first challenges the main theme of the November article to the effect that the significant aspect of the community chest is "the passing of control of the destiny of social work from the few choice spirits who created and lovingly fostered it to the great and merciless democracy." He admits that the innovators are no longer in the saddle, but announces with finality that my conception of a democratic succession is "not true."

As a matter of fact, this democratic conception is subject to honest debate unless you stick to the exact meaning implied. I should be quite willing to defend it against any one who atttacked it on debatable grounds in good temper. But Mr. Lee chooses two lines of argument that are too easily overthrown. He offers first the idea that it is not the democracy but the plutocracy that has taken control of the destiny of social work. I must be an innocent boob. A wide acquaintance with literally hundreds of directors of social agencies from the Atlantic to the Rockies had led me to believe that, prior to the coming of the community chest, kindly, benevolent, high-grade plutocrats had seats in great numbers on boards of management and governing committees, and controlled the destinies of private social work. What puzzles me greatly about his argument is that these same fine-grained, beautiful-spirited people are still on the boards of the separate agencies; and it is from their ranks that the boards of directors of community chests are recruited. I might say in passing that they are the salt of the earth, stamped with the same sense of service that sets Mr. Lee apart among men. Yet fine as they were and are, we must not let any one create the delusion that a group of heavenly angels once stood on the bridge of the ship of social work until a sly old pirate named Plutocracy, disguised behind a community-chest solicitor's button, slipped up from the rear and stuck a knife between their saintly ribs. The truth is, there is next to no difference between the type who administered social work before the chest, and the one who administers it now.

MR. LEE, being aloof from the movement, doesn't know that, and creates bogies dreadfully frightening in the dark. He has a still more serious obstacle to an understanding of the problem. He confuses administration and control. The two are sometimes, but by no means always, synonymous. And this is one case where they are not synonymous. With a centralized administration dependent for its vital support upon an enormous, simultaneous referendum, administration becomes the servant, and the demos balloting becomes the boss of destiny. That is what has happened to private social work in federated cities. The managers of a community chest and of the constituent agencies, continue to manage, but they stake the results of their management and the policies that they pursue upon an annual campaign which is in effect an annual referendum with dollars as ballots. True, most of the money is given by a few thousand givers; but a segment of from twenty to forty per cent of the total represents a great popular subscription taken from tens of thousands of givers; and the giving of

(*Continued on page* 135)



Donahey in the Cleveland Plain Dealer

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The Common Welfare

A CHILDREN'S CRUSADE

WHEN Fourteenth Street was far uptown and Forty-second Street a meadow, the Children's Aid Society began its work for New York waifs who seem as remote from our country and time as the wretched urchins of Dickens' Fagin school or the "wild children" of present-day Russia. In 1849, four years before the society was founded, police records showed 10,000 vagrant children in the city, 3,000 of them engaged in thieving. Two-thirds of these were girls from eight to sixteen years old. For some years an unprecedented immigration had swept toward the new world—in 1852 alone more than 300,000 aliens were landed in New York. Many of these were sober, hard-working people, destined to become a strong link in American citizenship. But with them came the dregs of the over-crowded and war-ridden cities of Europe; and usually the most shiftless and least able got no further than this the port of entry, bringing with them a dowry of squalor which could hardly have been imagined by America thirty years before. Children ran wild on the streets of New York, homeless, living by begging, pilfering, selling matches, apples, or newspapers. They slept in cellars, on steps, in old barns, in cheap lodging-houses in the rookeries of slums which had been riddled by cholera. It was for such as these that the society started work under a leader who had known the cities of Germany, Hungary, England and Ireland, and who became convinced, after a year's ministry in the Five Points, that it was with the children, not with those old in sin, that reform must start.

The epic story of the society's work through these past seventy-five years, exactly divided in leadership between Charles Loring Brace, the founder, and his son of the same name, is told in the just published Crusade for Children, a record of a gradually developing social consciousness in America which has led to this children's twentieth century. A children's crusade it was indeed when Mr. Brace embarked for Albany by steerage, with forty-six children to prospect for homes in "the West." Passengers on the boat took two of them; and at Albany, before they started westward in box-cars, another homeless urchin was added. Arrived at Dowagiac, in southern Michigan, at three o'clock on a Sunday morning, they spread themselves on the depot floor to sleep, and later filed, a ragged crew, to the church services in the schoolhouse to which the farmers came from far and near. By that evening, there were fifteen applications for children, vouched for by the pastor and justice of the peace; by the following Saturday, homes had been found for all, with the promise of a good common-school education and $100 when they reached their majority.

It is a long road from these pioneer days, through the history of 36,000 children placed in family homes, to the present standards of the society in both its adoption and boarding-home work. Its way is marked with the signposts of the times, ideas initiated or promoted by the society as conditions changed: industrial schools for working children, newsboys' homes and boys' clubs; the racking years of the Civil War period; the legislative work of the seventies, for compulsory education, against the padrone system; the transitional decades of the eighties and nineties, down to this past quarter century when the society's schools have served as educational experiment stations, when its efforts reached out to grasp the new tools of science—school nurses, dental clinics, nutrition campaigns, playgrounds, and the like. In a concluding chapter on the future, William Church Osborn, president of the society, foresees the withdrawal of its purely educational work for older children, so that it may concentrate on that for runabouts still too young for the city system of schools, on more recreational activities for older youngsters including a club for colored children, a bigger and better boys' camp, a psychiatric clinic, and the extension of its boarding-home and adoption work. Gradually public responsibility has come to bear many of the burdens to which the society first called attention, but there remain the children whose individual misfortune, or weakness, or disability unfits them for the organized precedure. For these the door of the society, under the new leadership of Owen R. Lovejoy, stands open; for them it will endeavor to offer the new buttresses of a new age as opportunity and support are accorded.

A SOCIAL WORKER TURNS MINE OPERATOR

LAST November the country was startled by the shooting of a number of striking coal miners by state troopers at the Columbine mine of the Rocky Mountain Fuel Company in Colorado [See The Survey, December 15, 1927, page 357, and February 15, 1928, page 644]. It transpired that one of the largest owners of the stock of this company was Josephine Roche, a social worker of distinguished reputation, and that the tragedy at the Columbine had resulted from managerial policies against which she had protested. At the time her protest had been ineffective because she was a minority stockholder.

Under date of March 15, The Survey received from Miss Roche copy of the public announcement that she had acquired control of the Rocky Mountain Fuel Company, together with a statement of the future policies of the company by Merle D. Vincent, its newly elected president. Mr. Vincent holds that the "outstanding cause" of the present demoralized condition of the coal industry "is that operators have consistently and continuously been at war with labor, with the public and with each other. . . . When operators in their greed for business cut prices to bedrock, they make their men pay the loss, thus paving the way for another strike, for failures and receiverships such as the industry in Colorado has recently witnessed." This is significant language coming from an experienced and responsible coal operator.

Believing that the recurrent depressions in the industry are mainly due to price-cutting necessitated by the "operators' intolerant attitude toward labor," Mr. Vincent announces that the company's policies will "be based on the fact that the men employed are as much an essential factor in the industry as the capital invested in it . . . and will

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accordingly look toward dealing between management and employes through their own independent organizations on a basis of equality."

This declaration has the vigorous support of Miss Roche, who, as owner of the majority stock, is responsible for Mr. Vincent's election to the presidency of the company, of which she herself is now vice-president. Miss Roche is setting out to do for her mines what John D. Rockefeller, Jr., with the help of W. L. Mackenzie King, now premier of Canada, undertook to do in the mines of the Colorado Fuel and Iron Company after the Ludlow tragedy of April, 1914. She has the advantage of residence on the spot and the support of a chief executive thoroughly in sympathy with her purposes. It would be a remarkable achievement if a woman of Miss Roche's training in social work should be able to demonstrate to the men who have for so many years had control of the coal industry that there is a more effective remedy for its labor and management problems than price cutting, wage cutting, strikes, injunctions, yellow-dog contracts, armed guards and machine guns.

A FORUM THAT FLOWERED

FORD HALL Folks plan to celebrate on April 17 the twentieth anniversary of the Ford Hall Forum in Boston. Welcome such a spring-time anniversary! One with unsettling thrust and promise to it. We need that sort in this winter of our content.

Back in April, 1908, the spirit of the season must have tugged at his elbows, when George W. Coleman planted the Ford Hall Forum. He spaded deep, breaking hard-pan. His idea took root, flowered out, scattered seed throughout the period before the War, when there was such great stir of plowing and harrowing in all our civic, social and political tillage ground. The War called the workers from these fields before the harvest. The years since, with their tramplings of prosperity, their soggy lethargies and nipping disillusionments, have left much bare ground with broken stalks.

Through it all, the forums fostered by Mr. Coleman and his associates, or otherwise initiated, yet fortified by the experience of Ford Hall under the auspices of the Boston Baptist Social Union, have proved themselves more than fair-weather garden spots. Some have been uprooted to be sure—because the soil beneath them was weak. Others have withered in the midst of the thorns of critical situations and the stones of hostile environments. Still others have been scattered by birds of dissension within. But as a group, these new-old social institutions, harking back to earliest gatherings in our history as a self-governing people, confronting the issues of democracy fallen upon new times, have weathered this epoch of transition. They have provided meeting places for men's minds at places and times when other doors were closed; they have grown strong in survival; they have spread and become a focus for mounting self-consciousness in one community after another. No one who has not visited in the last two or three years the forums scattered, for example, throughout the Middle West, can appreciate their part in gaining a hearing for psychological discovery and social invention; in making for international understanding; in cutting the teeth of citizenship at home.

Like cold-frames in our belated spring, they are seed-beds for young growths—for new blends of ideas and resurgent common purposes that will yet mantle our backward landscapes and spread to higher reaches on the hills.

THE QUOTA COMPROMISE

OUTSTANDING among the tragic absurdities of our increasingly rigid policy of immigration restriction is that of the compulsory disruption of families. The extent to which this is happening can be realized only by those who are victims of it or otherwise in helpless contact with the narratives of personal experiences of truly homeless married men; wives barred from husbands by an ocean and a less merciful law; of children left alone in the old countries while parents in the new eat out their hearts in anxiety.

Out of the dispute between those who would modify the existing law and the hard-boiled restrictionists who, in their zeal to "keep America American" would concede nothing whatever to humanity, there has emerged a grudging compromise which appears the best attainable at the moment. House Joint Resolution 234, introduced on March 12 by Representative MacGregor of Buffalo, is a proposal to create within the rigid quota restrictions a "family quota fund," a margin of preference for the restoration of families. It embodies a scheme to devote during the next two fiscal years (ending June 30, 1930) a maximum 50 per cent of the total of all the national quotas to the admission, without regard to country of birth, of any otherwise admissible quota immigrant

> . . . who is (a) the unmarried child under 21 years of age, the father, the mother, the husband, of a citizen of the United States who is 21 years of age or over; or (b) the unmarried child under 21 years of age, the husband, or the wife of an alien who has declared intention to become a citizen of the United States, and has been (1) lawfully admitted to the United States prior to July 1, 1924, and subsequent to June 3, 1921, or (2) resident in the United States prior to June 3, 1921, and lawfully admitted from such date.

The resolution also would somewhat mitigate the prevailing hardships with regard to proof of lawful entry, and provide other details of administration.

The situation shrieks for relief. Even this much might somewhat gloss the grim absurdity of inflicting at our doors upon those whom we affect to regard as a menace to our institutions, the additional handicap of family disintegration. Are we not *par excellence* the nation which exalts the family as the true social unit, the conservator of personal character, social health and moral safety?

THE POOR MAN'S LAWYER

WHILE legal aid has a history of more than half a century it was the publication in 1919 of Reginald Heber Smith's Justice and the Poor that first centered public attention generally, and the attention of the bar in particular, upon its meaning and importance. The years since the War have seen a quickening and a strengthening of the activities of the National Association of Legal Aid Organizations, both in this country and in England. In 1926, therefore, the Legal Aid Society of New York, celebrating its semi-centennial, felt that the time was ripe for a re-examination of its present worth and future potentialities, and a grant from the Russell Sage Foundation made possible a detailed study of the work in this city which has just reached publication. The survey was made under the direction of a committee of six, representing equally the New York Bar Association and the Welfare Council, in co-operation with the chairman of the legal aid committee of the New York County Lawyers' Association. William Hodson served as chairman of the committee, W. Bruce

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Cobb and Dorothy G. McCann as director and research assistant respectively.

The upshot of nearly a year's study is that in New York, at least, the poor man is in need of legal aid, and that that need, as well as the broad considerations of social justice, bespeak it increased support at the hands of the legal profession, the general public, employers, and social agencies alike. It is impossible to estimate the amount of legal service given through charitable agencies, labor organizations and other channels not dealing chiefly or solely with such service, as well as by the several legal aid organizations, but some idea of its scope may be ascertained from the fact that the largest of these latter, the Legal Aid Society, alone handles the staggering total of 28,000 cases a year.

The recommendations of the committee, though drawn on the basis of New York alone, offer suggestions for general improvement. Here, its members feel, the best service is rendered at the present time by the general, independent, privately supported legal agency. This includes the criminal as well as the civil field, i.e., the voluntary rather than the public defender. Centralization and extension of such work under appropriate organizations, such as the bar associations and possibly other civic groups, is advisable, though there should be an initial organization by boroughs. The poverty line for acceptance or rejection of cases should be more liberally and precisely defined to meet the needs of those unable to pay the usual fees of a competent attorney. Expansion of service is needed in cases of workmen's compensation; in domestic relations cases generally, including divorce for men, alimony, and family courts; and in negligence and other contingent fee cases, as well as highly specialized needs, by referral to lawyers on a legal aid list of reliable, competent, honest private attorneys, which should be made up by the legal aid group in cooperation with bar associations. "Justice to the client should never be subordinate to fear of competition with the bar." There is a need for professional standards in such matters as training and salaries; for permanence of staffs, and specialization in certain cases; for women attorneys on legal aid staffs; for more general appreciation of the attributes of case work, and more general cooperation between legal aid societies themselves and with the welfare agencies, social workers and the public.

"Surely legal aid must continue to develop and the bar must carry out its high ethical duty to the poor man through legal aid as a medium for the most effective performance of that duty," writes John W. Davis in a foreword. "It will not do for this report simply to be accepted as a report and pigeonholed—so to speak—in the minds of the bar and the public. Such a report is to be considered merely as a preliminary for action. With it comes an opportunity to translate ideals into realities."

PUT SALT ON HIS TAIL

"BEFORE a criminal can be punished or dealt with as science suggests," Frank O. Lowden points out succinctly in a foreword to a report recently submitted to the National Crime Commission on The Relation of the Police and the Courts to the Crime Problem, "he must first be caught and convicted." Hence Mr. Lowden believes that too much attention is centered on the punishment of criminals, too little on how first to get the bird in the hand. And indeed, according to the statistics which Louis N. Robinson cites in the body of the report, the risks of being a criminal pale into insignificance beside those risks of being a baby which health workers are always pointing out. "Robbery in Buffalo, for example," says Professor Robinson, interpreting a tabular summary of a number of investigations of arrests in American cities and in England, "must be a particularly lucrative calling. As arrests are made in only 3 per cent of the cases, the number who are finally convicted is necessarily so small that the luckless individual who is occasionally caught and convicted must attribute his misfortune to an act of God, as he would in case of disastrous storm, shipwreck or earthquake." For the ratio of convictions to known crime is naturally even smaller than that of arrests—among Cleveland thieves, for example, 2 per cent!

Considering in some detail the respective responsibilities and deficiencies of our police and legal systems, as measured by their own performance and in contrast with English procedure, the need of rural areas which are without police systems, the abuse of bail, and other links in the chain of conviction, the report points out that the application of principles which have been proven in ordinary business practice might work a beneficent revolution in police systems, while much of our court system seems still in "a pre-scientific stage of evolution, a time when man did not believe that it was possible consciously by taking thought to improve the social machinery which had come down to him from his ancestors," still waiting for the kind of a research laboratory maintained by any large and enterprising manufacturing concern to test new methods of doing old things and discover new products and new ways of serving society.

THE JEWS OF NEW YORK

WITH the publication of its first section, the Jewish Communal Survey of Greater New York draws in the first bold outlines of what eventually will be a great picture of the adaptation of an ancient race to a new land. The survey was begun two years ago under the direction of an independent citizens' committee, with Judge Otto A. Rosalsky as chairman, to acquaint the Jewish community with the nature and extent of its problems in communal and philanthropic work and to outline a plan for the future. It has been executed by a staff of fifty social workers under the direction of Samuel A. Goldsmith of the Bureau of Jewish Social Research.

Basically it is concerned with a study of the Jewish population in health and sickness and death, from which may be derived a factual appreciation of the need of hospital beds, of facilities for the aged, the orphaned, the dependent and delinquent, as well as for the welfare of all through education and play. It will show the death-rate and the health-rate among Jews, differing appreciably from that of the remaining 70 per cent of New York's population, with an estimate of the extent to which existing hospitals, clinics and dispensaries, Jewish and otherwise, are meeting the present need and how they might be supplemented; the present reach and possible future of Jewish philanthropy; the where and what of recreation under the shifting needs of city life; the possibilities of a preventive program to help wayward boys and girls before their plight reaches the requirement of court action; and so on, through all the kinds of Jewish communal work represented in the Federations of Jewish Charities in New York and Brooklyn and in organizations not affiliated with these.

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The striking picture of this first section is the spread of a prospering people out from the dark, crowded tenements of the lower East Side to the comfortable one- and two-family houses and apartments of Brooklyn and the Bronx. The Jewish population of New York—1,728,000 in 1925—has been growing at exactly the same rate as the non-Jewish; in 1925, as in 1916, it accounted for 30 per cent of the total. Yet during this decade Manhattan lost 200,000 Jews; in only the northern tip of the island, Washington Heights, was there an increase. Now nearly 46 per cent of the Jewish population of the greater city lives in Brooklyn: Coney Island, for example, is 96.7 per cent Jewish.

The Jews of New York are a youthful group, even in contrast to the general population of this youngest of great cities. Even so, they have a low birth-rate and maintain their parity in population growth only by the low death-rates which seem to be a racial characteristic in all age groups up to forty-five. Time may alter their distribution by age as it has changed their places of residence, and with it the whole network of social effort necessary for their well-being. Such a study as the present one lays the foundation for a rational plan for the future of a great segment of New York's people, and traces the development of a social technique of profound interest beyond the limits of city and race.

SCIENCE, RELIGION AND THE CHILD

WHAT is the contribution of a developing science to religious education? What changes, if any, are necessary in the religious teaching of children? Does the problem of religious education concern itself with training the young in those ways of living upon which their elders in the present age can agree? Or is it better to help children acquire the questioning attitude of the scientist toward each problem of life as they meet it and then work toward their own solution?

After three days of discussion of various phases of Education in Religion in an Age of Science, several hundred members of the Religious Education Association, at the recent meeting in Philadelphia, came to grips with these questions as the climax of their twenty-fifth annual convention. Not as representatives of their widely divergent denominations and groups, but as individuals earnestly seeking new light, they faced the issue squarely—Protestant ministers, Roman Catholic priests, Jewish rabbis, college professors, church workers, teachers in Sunday and weekday schools.

In a courageous bid for helping the child find his own way to God, Sophie Lyon Fahs expressed her conviction that "a religion pre-eminently of beliefs and moral codes must change to a religion of quest. . . . The essence of the religion of the new day will be found in the process, and that must be a process of search into the most intimate and the most perplexing problems of living—the problems of our personal aloneness in this complex universe and of our varied and myriad companionships. It will be conceived of as a search for God and for all which that may mean."

Frankly admitting the experimental nature of the method of religious education that she has launched at the Union School of Religion in New York City, Mrs. Fahs pointed out what seemed to her the inevitability of beginning with early childhood this substitution of the inductive method of search for the deductive method of handing-down. If adults answer children's questions about God, about right and wrong, with an air of finality that seems to assume privileges not vouchsafed to the young, she argued, there will come a spiritual wrench in later life when scientific training conflicts with a false security. "We would give them security in the process of search rather than have them feel that security must wait for a settled faith."

HALING THE SICK TO COURT

"INSANITY" is a legal term, used to describe a person's irresponsibility in the eyes of the law by reason of his infirmity of mind. In treatment, modern medical science disavows that term, substituting for it the more humane concept of mental disease—as truly disease as typhoid fever or diabetes, and deserving the same thoughtful consideration and treatment that is accorded to purely physical illness. But the remnants of old phantasies of demons and witches persist, and their memory is invoked by the accounts of two courtroom sessions in Brooklyn a short time ago in which Justice James C. Cropsey caused forty-eight patients who had been under observation at the Brooklyn State Hospital to be brought before him so that he might examine them in court before signing the papers committing them for care. Some were in strait jackets, others on stretchers. One boy had his throat bandaged because of self-inflicted wounds. Still another, said to have been suffering from a form of mental disease which might make him dangerous at any time, escaped from the courtroom during the proceedings despite the presence of four hospital attendants and two court officers.

Under the laws of New York, designed to prevent just such public exposure of sick persons as this order required, the usual practice is for the judge to sign commitment papers upon the certification of two psychiatrists. Where a question is raised to the commitment by either the patient or his relatives, the judge can go to the hospital to see the patient and sign the papers there. The law does not require that the patient be produced in court, though such a course may be taken, and occasionally is taken in exceptional instances. Ordinarily, as has been requested by the state commissioner of mental diseases, Dr. Frederick W. Parsons, the judge accepts the statement of the psychiatrists on the mental condition of the patients as a matter for medical diagnosis, rather than legal opinion.

A public letter, signed by Dr. Frankwood E. Williams, medical director of the National Committee for Mental Hygiene, has been issued to express the protest of that organization against the public commitment method practiced by this Brooklyn court.

"Imagine," Dr. Williams writes, "forty-eight men and women suffering from, let us say, cancer or pneumonia, or from injuries received in a railroad wreck, being haled into court to stand trial, as it were, for the crime of getting sick or hurt before admission to a hospital for treatment. This is what happened to a number of our fellow citizens who were unfortunate enough to suffer a mental or nervous breakdown, sick in the same sense as those suffering from physical disorders.

"In the name of hundreds of physicians, jurists, educators, parents, public officials and other members of an organization devoted to the amelioration of the lot of the insane, and the control and prevention of mental and nervous diseases, and speaking for the helpless people and their relatives whose sensibilities were so outraged, we protest against the inhumanity and callous thoughtlessness of this wholly unnecessary procedure enacted in the process of committing mentally sick persons to a hospital."

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America Gets on the Grass

By MABEL TRAVIS WOOD

WHEN Jacob Riis was fighting for a park at Mulberry Bend in the early 90's, he characterized New York City's parks as "breathing places—where one can do little else." Today cities and counties of the United States provide a quarter of a million acres of parks, where their dwellers not only may inhale fresh air and rest the eye with rural scenery, but play a game of golf, hear a symphony concert, cook supper, study the habits of marsupials and engage in at least a hundred other activities that exercise muscles and mind. The "Keep Off the Grass" sign which liberally dotted park landscapes before 1900, went out of fashion with the leg-o'-mutton sleeve. It died a harder death, for occasional relics still are seen. But steadily and surely the public recreation idea has been invading parks, until now at least 90 per cent of park officials favor the use of the areas under their control for active recreation.

The Playground and Recreation Association of America, which recently completed an exhaustive study of municipal and county parks, points to this introduction of recreational and educational activities as the most significant development in our seventy-five years of public parks. For the first fifty years, declares L. H. Weir, director of the study, few parks offered a chance to do more than rest amid beautiful surroundings. During the last twenty-five years, the recreation movement, which began with "sand gardens" for children about 1885 and later expanded to include all age groups, "exerted a most profound effect on the entire pioneer conception of parks and their recreational facilities."

The park study was made at the suggestion of President Coolidge. Following the National Conference on Outdoor Recreation which he called in May, 1924, the Playground and Recreation Association of America, was asked in conjunction with the American Institute of Park Executives, to secure this data, looking toward a systematic nation-wide planning of outdoor recreation. In 1925, a grant from the Laura Spelman Rockefeller Foundation enabled the P. R. A. A. to begin work.

In his foreword to the study, President Coolidge declares:

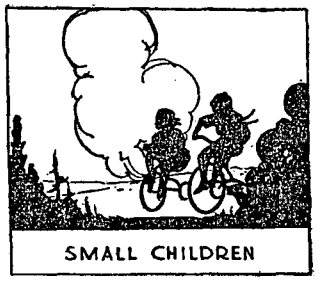
> Play for the child, sport for youth and recreation for adults are essentials of normal life. It is becoming generally recognized that the creation and maintenance of outdoor recreation facilities is a community duty in order that the whole public might participate in their enjoyment. . . . I am hopeful that the results of this study may be widely used to the end that our people, even in cities, may not be deprived of opportunities for wholesome play and recreation out of doors.

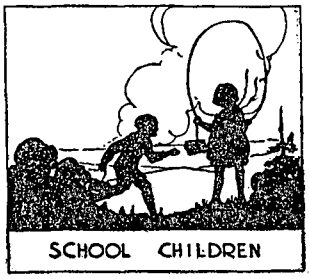
More than a billion dollars has been spent in the United States to acquire and equip municipal and county parks and forests. The annual expense of upkeep and addition to these spaces amounts to about a hundred million dollars. The approximately 250,000 acres in city and county parks would cover only a small patch of the six and a half million acres in state parks and forests and the 169 million in national reservations of this kind. They are, however, close to the daily life of the people, oases of sunshine and grass.

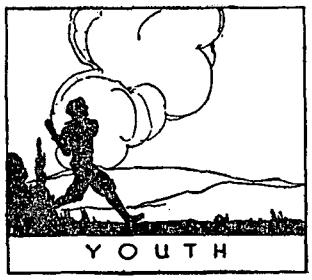
MOST cities and towns are far from providing park space sufficient for the needs of their people. The standard of one acre of park land for every one hundred of the population, which has been set as adequate by some authorities, is met or exceeded by only forty-two cities of more than 25,000 population. The greatest lack is small neighborhood parks, which serve also as playgrounds for children. None of the larger cities—New York in particular—has supplied these areas as plentifully as they are needed.

Reports were secured from practically every city of more than 25,000 population and all but one proved to have some park space. Going down the population scale, however, the committee found that more and more communities reported no parks, until in the group of smallest population, more communities are without parks than with them. Few small towns are profiting by the mistakes of the larger ones by setting aside land for parks and playgrounds while it is available and cheap. The statistics are as follows:

Population	Total in United States	Reporting No Parks	Reporting Parks	Total Acreage
25,000 and over	287	1	274	193,137.77
10,000 to 25,000	458	39	346	33,589.00
5,000 to 10,000	724	67	255	11,366.87
2,500 to 5,000	1,321	72	237	5,186.89
Under 2,500	12,912	752	569	5,346.64
Total all groups	15,702	931	1,681	248,627.17







From a chart by Harland Bartholomew and Associates, St. Louis

Play for all ages finds a place in the program of modern parks

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California, with 20,858 acres in city and county parks, leads the ten most populous states in this respect. New York State is second with 19,415 acres and is followed by Texas, Massachusetts, Pennsylvania and Illinois. New England, cradle of the public play movement, reported a total of 23,966 acres, of which 14,675 are in Massachusetts. There are 32,938 acres in Illinois, Ohio and Michigan. Though the Southwest ranks well, it lags behind other sections of the country: eleven states report a total of 21,205 acres.

THE study has taken the ratio of park acreage to population as the simplest measure of the extent to which cities provide areas for recreation. This is not always an accurate basis for determining the relative standings of cities, however. If most of the total acreage is in one large park, if the parks are poorly distributed or do not include various types of recreation facilities, the park system may be inefficient even though the acreage is large.

The best showing in per capita park provision is made by cities in the newer states, which have acquired considerable of their growth during the era of city planning. The Texas cities of Fort Worth, Dallas and Houston have made noteworthy progress in the extension and development of park systems, with one acre of park land for every thirty, forty-one and fifty-six inhabitants respectively. Rocky Mountain cities, including Denver, Butte and Helena, have extensive mountain parks, Denver's system comprising 10,207 acres in forty-four parcels. Phoenix, Arizona, boasts more park space than any city in the nation, because of Mountain Park, outside the city limits, which contains 15,080 acres. This is the largest municipally owned park in the United States. Fairmount Park, Philadelphia, containing 3,881 acres, is the second largest and stands first in size among the parks within city limits.

Los Angeles leads the ten most populous cities in ratio of park acreage to population, supplying one acre for every 118 persons. Philadelphia is second with a ratio of 234. The ratios of the other eight cities are: Baltimore, 255; Detroit, 266; St. Louis, 268; Boston, 284; Cleveland, 359; Pittsburgh, 370; New York, 553; Chicago, 602.

Though the Chicago ratio is high, the park system in the Windy City provides extensively for the recreation of citizens of all ages, particularly through the creative arts. Chicagoans also have access to the Cook County Forest Preserve, containing 31,600 acres. New York reported the largest total park area within city limits—10,178 acres. Yet her park growth has not nearly kept pace with her growth in population and cities with but a fraction of New York's park acreage are far better off in per capita space for outdoor recreation.

THE Minneapolis park and recreation system is one of the most outstanding in America from the standpoint of the number of acres, distribution and types of properties, character of development and quality of maintenance, this park study says. This city has 4,735 acres of park land, one acre for every eighty inhabitants. Of 132 different park properties, seventy-eight are in small parks of less than five acres.

Park provision among the group of cities which follow the first ten in population, is considerably more extensive than in the larger cities. In this group are twenty-two cities of more than 200,000 population. Denver leads with a ratio of twenty-two inhabitants per acre of city park land and Minneapolis is second with eighty. Eleven other cities have ratios of less than two hundred, as follows: Kansas City, Missouri, 100; Portland, Oregon, 118; Indianapolis, 122; Washington, 128; Louisville, 142; Seattle, 147; Cincinnati, 148; St. Paul, 149; Toledo, 153; Rochester, 167; Atlanta, 182.

Since the automobile came into common use, cities have been acquiring large tracts outside their limits for park purposes. One hundred and nine municipalities maintain such outside parks. Though these spaces fail to relieve safety problems of children's play, as do neighborhood parks, they provide for adult recreation and family outings. Eventually they will become a part of the city, if the history of early outlying parks is to be taken as an example. When the Chicago Park Board purchased Jackson and Washington Parks, their action was criticized on the ground that the lands were too far removed. The city has since grown up close to these areas.

Park planning, not only within the city, but far out into the surrounding country is now the aim of progressive park departments. Boston and Cleveland have made the most striking accomplishment in such regional park planning, according to the study.

The young movement for county parks, which serve as a link between municipal and state parks, promises one solution of the problem of providing recreation opportunities for rural districts. Thirty-three counties report one or more county parks. Probably the largest and most complete system is in Westchester County, New York, where 15,289 acres of park land are being developed under a commission of nine members. Essex, Union and Hudson Counties, New Jersey; Cook County, Illinois; Milwaukee County, Wisconsin; Orange County, California, and Wayne County, Michigan, also have interesting developments.

SOME of the features of state and national parks are found in county parks and large outlying municipal parks. Extensive tracts of woodland have been left in their natural state. Trails for hikers, and shacks and outdoor ovens for campers give modern cliff dwellers a taste of primitive life.

Among the directed recreations which park departments offer, the study names physical activities—athletic games and sports; musical, dramatic and social interests; and handicrafts which satisfy the constructive impulse that can find so little expression in modern industry. The environmental and scientific interest is given an opportunity for expression through nature study, while linguistic interests are represented in story-telling and public discussions. Summer opera in Forest Park, St. Louis, draws thousands. Children of Dallas have become acquainted with animals and plants in the local parks through novel zoological and horticultural contests conducted by the Park Department. Golden Gate Park, San Francisco, has one of the most remarkable educational-recreational centers to be found in any large park in the United States. A music temple with outdoor auditorium, a memorial museum, academy of science and other buildings of inspiring architecture have been the gifts of citizens.

With this sort of development has come a decided change in the character and training of park executives. Most of the early park men were horticulturalists, who put up a conscientious but losing battle when the serpent in the form of a demand for active play first threatened their flowering

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Edens. It is said that, as late as 1905, a New England park superintendent forbade a slide for children to be installed in a park because it would "mar the landscape."

Landscape beauty still has a vital place in parks, but the park superintendent becomes more and more the recreation leader and sociologist. "The modern park executive," says the study, "should be first of all a student and interpreter of the social needs of the people, insofar as these needs can be met through their leisure time. . . . In addition he must be a promoter, a leader and organizer of the people in a great variety of activities designed, on the one hand, to remedy the human ills resulting from the inherent defects of abnormal living conditions, especially in urban communities, and, on the other hand, to aid the people to gain a greater measure of happiness in living."

IN 1900 not a single institution offered special training for the profession of either park executive or recreation worker. Now over sixty different colleges give special courses in landscape architecture with attention to the training of park executives, and more than one hundred and thirty educational institutions offer courses for the training of recreation leaders. The National Recreation School, opened by the Playground and Recreation Association of America in New York City in 1926, gives a one-year course for college graduates.

The salaries paid park employes are comparatively small. Especially do many executives seem underpaid in view of the fact that each is responsible for the success of an investment running frequently into hundreds of thousands of dollars.

Lack of unity is a major weakness in the administration of parks in many cities, according to the study. The types of authorities having control of parks and recreation activities number several hundreds. In the first twenty-five cities there are sixty-two different agencies dealing with public parks and recreation.

Chicago has nineteen independent park and recreation districts within the city and eleven outside, all possessing the corporate powers of the municipality. There are also a general bureau in the municipal department of public works, having charge of certain parks, playgrounds and bathing beaches over the city as a whole, and a Bureau of Recreation under the Board of Education. New York City's division of park districts corresponds to the old borough division. Each of the five park systems is under a single appointed commissioner whose tenure of office is subject to political changes in the head of the municipal government.

Park property in the United States is acquired and improved almost universally by means of bond issues. Mortgaging their future in this way is the only plan most communities can follow in making up for their neglect to provide necessary park areas in the past. However, many consider it only just that the entire financial burden should not be borne by the generation acquiring the area.

SOME communities have adhered to the policy of "pay as you go," financing extension and improvements out of current revenues. But such revenues generally are insufficient even for operation and maintenance costs. There have been a few notable examples of acquisition of properties by direct appropriation of municipal government, but as a rule governments are in the same position as park departments in respect of current revenues.

A plan devised in Lorain, Ohio, is worth the attention of other communities. Here a group of citizens purchased a large tract of land, and after reserving one hundred acres for a large park, sold the remainder for a sum sufficient to cover the entire cost of the original tract. Donations of land and bequests for parks from public-spirited citizens are becoming more and more common. A method of acquiring recreation spaces in the growing portions of towns and cities has been demonstrated by about a hundred progressive real estate dealers, who have set aside a part of new subdivisions for parks and playgrounds and have found that this pays them in advertising value and quicker sales of home-sites.

An encroachment that threatens parks today, the study points out, is that of buildings—museums, libraries, art centers, war memorials—which take up large areas of precious open space. Many civic storms have arisen and raged over the introduction of such structures into city parks. In spite of this, some have been introduced. Whether or not to allow concessions presents another problem. A classic example was the three-year war against the Greek who would erect a peanut stand in Battery Park, Manhattan.

The study recommends special areas for tourist camps, declaring that withdrawal of several acres of a large park for the continuous use of people from outside the city is hardly justifiable in principle and has a disturbing effect upon the general landscape design and appearance of the park.

"BOSSY" GILLIS, forthright mayor of Newburyport, Massachusetts, when asked how he stood on parks, is said to have replied, "I'm for 'em. I've slept in some of the best parks in the country."

Another reason why city officials are increasingly "for 'em" is that attractive parks are proving one of the best advertisements a city can have. Parks enhance real estate values in their neighborhood, which value comes back to the city in increased taxes. Facilities for wholesome recreation attract and hold industries. Employers are keenly alive to the recreation problem in cities and its relation to working efficiency. Not a few cities have failed to secure coveted industries because they lacked sufficient parks and playgrounds.

Park authorities should add to their other duties that of publicist, explains a chapter of the study. In the past, educational publicity has been little employed except when campaigns for funds with which to acquire or develop properties have been conducted. As a matter of fact, the greatest need for such publicity begins after the areas have been acquired. This use of all the principles of present-day salesmanship to see that the people enjoy their park facilities to the fullest extent is a far cry from "Keep Off the Grass." The spare time afforded by shorter work days and the five-and-a-half-day week will be a menace rather than a boon unless it is used wisely. More outdoor sports and constructive interests are imperative to check the idle, unsatisfying, sometimes vicious amusement that leads to youthful mischief and delinquency.

City parks and playgrounds are sadly inadequate still. But they bid fair to be the laboratory in which America will work out a happier, more expressive use of her growing leisure.

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Economic Patterns of New York

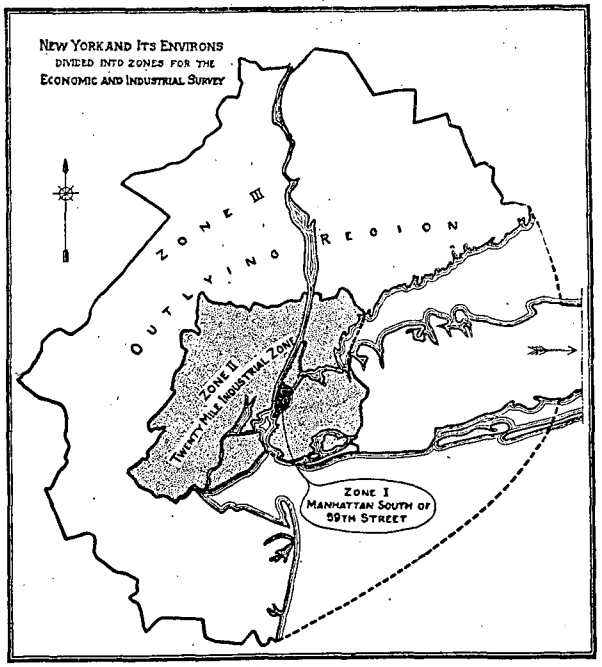
By H. W. DODDS

As long as city planning was merely the handmaiden of civic art it was simple and understandable in purpose and method. But nothing illustrates the broad sweep of the city-planning movement and the distance which separates it from the city-beautiful objective better than the first volume of the Regional Survey of New York and Its Environs (Major Economic Factors in Metropolitan Growth and Arrangement, by Robert Murray Haig in consultation with Roswell C. McCrea), which studies the economic causes of aggregations of population and the manner in which persons and industries distribute themselves within urban areas.

It is difficult to restrain one's enthusiasm in considering this report by Professors Haig and McCrea because it undoubtedly marks the beginning of a new emphasis upon the economics of city planning, as well as the suggestion of a technique for applying it.

To some the modern city is still a parasitic growth. To others, recognizing the economic and social causes which draw people to this "unnatural" environment, it yet remains a monstrosity—the Intolerable City, of Lewis Mumford—which in our ignorance we have inflicted upon ourselves. According to critics of this school it could all have been avoided by a moderate exercise of thought and foresight.

To this facile arraignment Professor Haig has a threefold and decisive reply. The first is that the modern city, even the big congested city, is economically efficient. Not so efficient, and certainly not so comfortable, as it could be made, but affording commercial and industrial advantages sufficient to induce men to suffer the discomforts of congestion. Second, the present uses of land are not so irrational as they may seem. At first glance, he admits, everything in the New York region seems misplaced, but "the deeper one delves into the present lay-out, the more distrustful he becomes of sweeping indictments of its soundness." In other words, business men seeking industrial locations have, by trial and error, arranged themselves to their economic advantage. Although the arrangement could have been planned better by a supermind, it is not an economic atrocity. Third, the tremendous difficulty in devising a more economically efficient metropolitan pattern than that which "just grows," precludes ready-made cure-alls for present ills.



In its research and program, the Regional Plan of New York embraces an organic area 250 times as great as the nucleus of Manhattan Island. H. W. Dodds reviews herewith the first of twelve volumes to be published during the current year in which the committee, under the direction of Thomas Adams, summarizes the results of more than five years of fact-finding and offers its suggestions for a more rational direction of the protean growth of the metropolis (see The Survey, March 15, 1928, page 751).

Yet the modern city planner must devise such a pattern if he is materially to increase the enjoyment and beauty of city life. It will not be accomplished merely by prohibiting skyscrapers and hastily building rapid-transit lines into unbuilt districts, for in addition to providing a richer supply of the amenities of life the new city must be a more effective business unit.

Some with favorite penaceas for congestion become impatient when reminded of this obligation, but unless they can supply an alternative to congestion which offers business all the economic advantage of the present, their schemes are doomed to failure. Professor Haig, therefore, rightly urges the need for caution in zoning. Although present trends are the result of individual decisions of thousands of competing persons in search of financial profit they "are (for the moment, at least) the surest indication of what is economically sound."

The first chapter of the present volume refutes the "parasite" theory of city growth by showing the economic urge behind urban concentration. It is cities alone which afford the large concentration of capital and labor which today provides the abundant assortment of the enjoyable commodities of life. Concentration of industry and trade implies that raw materials must be assembled and manufactured products distributed. But against the economies of concentration, there arises "friction of space," i.e. costs of transportation. Great cities occur, therefore, where "the richest resource can be tapped with the lowest transportation costs." Such points are also the easiest points from which consumption goods can be distributed. "Instead of explaining why so large a portion of the population is found in urban areas," writes Professor Haig, "one must give reasons why the portion is not even greater." The progress of technology is constantly reducing the proportion which can live on farms or remain in the extractive industries.

Of course manufacture flourishes elsewhere than in the large cities and certain decentralizing influences will always be at work. The friction of space places potent obstacles in the path of concentration with respect to goods which are highly perishable or which experience great variation in bulk or weight during the process of manufacture. Labor troubles, more prevalent in large cities,

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drive industries out; while others leave to take advantage of what used to be called parasitic labor, but which Professor Haig more properly terms "supplementary." Thus the exodus of silk factories to the hard-coal fields provides work for wives and daughters of miners. Viewed from this angle, such industries tend to maintain the family as an economic and social unit.

Having explained the city in terms of economics, Professor Haig proceeds to consider the assignment of activities to areas within urban regions. Other economists have written of the causes of cities, but in his treatment of the forces which determine the uses of urban land the author's analysis is an original contribution. In an effort to learn where things belong in an urban area, he has studied the factors which have governed present locations in the New York region. Thus from the known we may work to the unknown. The pity is that it is so difficult to know the known.

TO discuss the "known," studies of twelve industries and businesses were made. These surveys, which have already been published as monographs, are the most comprehensive and intelligent yet made in a field in which the technique had largely to be developed. They form the basis of the generalizations of the present volume. The data proved discouragingly meager. For this reason the attempt to measure present space requirements of various businesses in terms of land values had to be abandoned, and the most that could be accomplished was an examination into the trends of business uses in the New York area. But a knowledge of trends and their causes is fundamental to answering the question, How shall decentralization proceed?

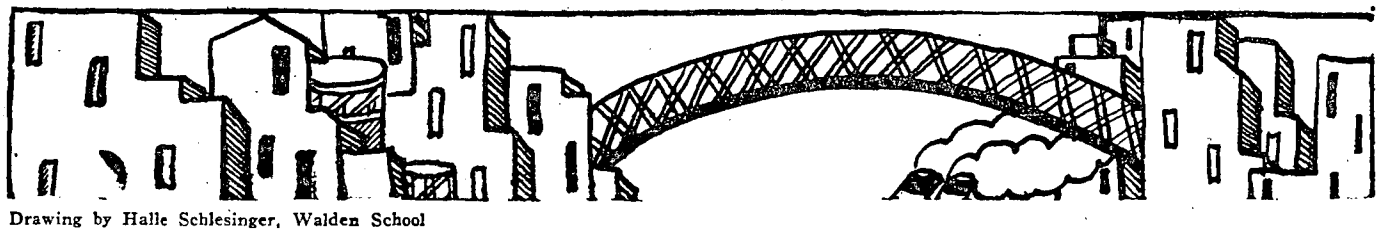
Manufacturing would appear to be one activity which did not belong in a highly congested center of a metropolis and is probably being crowded out of Manhattan, although the downward trend has not been established absolutely. Considering the center of the New York region to be the part of Manhattan south of Fifty-ninth Street, the number therein employed in manufacturing increased 44.8 per cent from 1900 to 1922. But for the metropolitan region as a whole, the increase was 114 per cent while the population for the entire area increased only 66.8 per cent. Moreover, the number employed in factories in the central district today is less than in 1917. It would seem from these facts that the peak in commercial Manhattan was reached ten years ago. Printing is the only group showing a consistent gain in this zone during the twenty-two year period.

For the whole region, two of the nine manufacturing industries studied, tobacco and wood products, appear not to thrive under metropolitan conditions. Machine methods in tobacco manufacture have made it a "supplementary" industry, utilizing a large amount of female labor and showing a tendency to move to towns where it can supplement metal or other industries requiring male labor. The wood industry involves reduction in bulk and weight as manufacture proceeds, which encourages it to move to points convenient to supply. Textiles, food, printing and metals have held their own in the metropolitan region during the past twenty-two years. But the women's garment industry, the men's clothing industry and the chemical industry have shown ability to grow amid congestion. Vagaries of fashion and demands of seasons have helped keep the needle trades in New York. In the women's garment trade these influences are more dominant than in the men's, which goes to account for its more rapid increase in the central zone, in which the men's garment industry has fallen off. The latter, however, has grown greatly in the rest of the region. The chemical industry has shown a rapid rate of growth, due to the fact that heavy chemicals usually increase in bulk and weight in the final processes and that fine chemicals are produced by small establishments using hand methods.

Studies of three activities devoted to distribution and financing were made. Wholesale markets, it is believed, will probably become, more and more, solely a place for setting prices of standardized goods, while storage and transportation functions will be moved to outlying districts. The financial district will probably remain where it is, for banking and insurance thrive best under a high degree of cohesion. The central retail-shopping district will expand somewhat but without any radical change of location. Retail subcenters will continue to grow, but the advantages of the central district will remain although the sub-center will develop more rapidly.

ONE fact that emerges from the study is the undoubted benefit attained by cohesion of economic functions. This helps account for the development of specialized districts. Sometimes it has been assumed that the reasons for such districts are largely psychological. It here appears however, that sound economic causes underlie this tendency to get together. It is one aspect of the struggle to overcome the friction of space, to accomplish which high site rents will often be paid.

Considering the amount of money and energy expended in the present study the task of the city planner, whose duty it will be to project past trends into the future, becomes gigantic. It touches every aspect of life in a world whose technology is constantly changing. Many necessary data are lacking or can be supplied only by great effort. Statistics are fragmentary and incomplete. The enormity of the problems, the methodology yet to be developed from imperfect materials, the baffling complexity of the forces, may easily discourage cities from undertaking such planning as the Regional Plan of New York contemplates. Yet undertaken it must be, if the vision of a real city beautiful is to be realized. In years to come this first volume of the final report of the Regional Plan of New York and Its Environs will be referred to as a significant step in the control of the development of our cities along rational lines, better places to work in and to live in.



Drawing by Halle Schlesinger, Walden School

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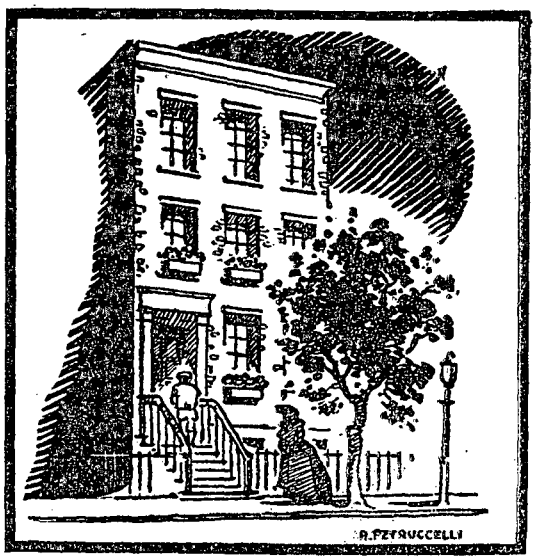

One Who Builded a House

By ZONA GALE

Drawings by A. Petruccelli

There are those who say, "Life is something
more than that which we believe it to be."
They say, "Let us look at human beings as if
we never had seen them before.
There are a thousand whose hands are deft, there are
a thousand whose heads are deft,
There is one whose heart is awake and aware,
Let us see them all for the first time."
It is an enchanting game, for now all these individuals
Disappear. Where there were a thousand and a
thousand and one
There remains only a single creature, the Human Being,
More than a race, more than a group,
All these thousands are no longer multiple
They are the Human Being, functioning in the
mask of many.
It is the new arithmetic.

* * *

Thus there are those who will have nothing to
do with masks,
Who say, "My dear race, do not be absurd and
try to differentiate your souls by your faces,
Your geographic areas, languages, periods, or even planets.
Read through!
To be sure, your masks make charming colors which we
would not willingly forgo,
Your fatherlands are enchanting as stage properties—
let us keep them as such,
Your languages give variety to literature and to
operas—that must be what they are for!
Very likely your histories are separate merely so that
school boys can learn about you more easily,
And the planets themselves—probably peopled as they
are—
At this distance
Seem to offer to us singularly few social distinctions.
Would one say, 'Who are those people up there?'
and 'Nobody knows them!'
No, all these separations merely make the great
pageant more colorful,
All these varieties of the Human Being make
the drama more poignant,
All these apparent discriminations are so
many different shapes
For purer ornamentation. Differences in peoples
are decorations and no more."
There are those who, thank God, do talk like that
Not on papers, but in life.

* * *

There was one such who builded a house.
This is the house.
For twenty-five years she has made of it a center of energy
Saying these things; saying, "Come—since all of us
together count up only to one,
Let us be about the health and the occupation and
the education and the love of that one.
Let us do these things not for ourselves, but for Ourself."
We know what has resulted. We know what
she had done,
What all have done who have learned to count
by her arithmetic,
To measure by her geography, to speak in her
great simple language,
To see the one face behind the disc of all the faces.
For Greenwich House stands here and speaks the truth:
That the illusion of separateness need not separate,
That living is an exercise in human relationship,
That life is something more than we believe it to be,
That man is not his brother's keeper
but his brother's brother.

GREENWICH HOUSE, New York, celebrated its twenty-fifth anniversary with a gay neighborhood dinner at which Miss Gale, an old resident, read this tribute to Mary K. Simkhovitch, the founder and head worker, and to all like her who have given a new meaning to the word neighbor. The little drawings on this page were taken from the dinner folder, which looked backward to the modest old house at 26 Jones Street, and forward to new ventures—a new work-shop, a summer camp, and additional quarters for the Music School.

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Social Work Preferred

By ADELINE E. DARTT

SOCIAL work is in the throes of an epidemic of popularity. The antitoxin of practical common sense has just been discovered. It must yet be administered to check the progress of emotionalism, theory and futility. The method of such administration is still unknown but there are sign-posts along the way.

Social service is not a familiar profession. The average person is only vaguely aware of it. Economically and socially above the level for the need of it, he looks upon it with mingled sensations. Generally, he feels it is commendable, a sort of scientific uplift idea that deserves his praise and sometimes his dollars. Some people have friends who are social workers. They make excellent dinner guests or fill in the dull spots in a would-be intellectual evening because they can aways be relied upon to talk shop and tell horrible tales that give the host and his guests a vicarious thrill. Some reject social service as meddlesome tomfoolery. I fear there are still a few benighted souls who confuse social service and socialism. And there are some radical socialists who keenly resent the social worker because she patches holes in that social order which he would like to see collapse through its progressive decay.

Social workers and physicians with years of experience and a gifted pen have written of the ideals and processes of social work so graphically that no one need be ignorant of its general applications, yet who ever reads them except social workers (and they not as frequently as they might)? Go to any public library and ask for Social Diagnosis or What Is Social Case Work? by Mary E. Richmond; the first, a long and rather technical treatise; the second, short, informative and readable. Or request Dr. Richard C. Cabot's beautiful little book, Social Service and the Art of Healing, or perhaps Mary C. Jarrett's The Kingdom of Evils, which would make really thrilling reading over many a winter evening. I am skeptical as to how many public libraries possess them. If you do receive them, I will wager with you that not any of them has ever been read more than once or twice—unless you are resident in a college community with a well-developed sociology department or allied school of social work.

Yet, I contend, social work is in the throes of an epidemic of popularity, that popularity which, each year, brings it a procession of recruits from the colleges, hospital training-schools, business and teaching professions and even boarding schools and convents. It is this influx that has made the epidemic, and it is these persons who cause the tremendous "turn over" in social agencies that brings grey hairs and sleepless nights to over-worked executives.

Why this popularity? First, there exists in all of us a desire to know all about the other fellow. We camouflage that desire in a conscious feeling of altruism, but it is really curiosity. We don't so much want to help him as we want to know about him. Our young women, fresh from school and college, want to know about life and here is a fairly new profession which will pay them for the glorious thrill of finding out. Closely allied to this element of curiosity is the novelty. Social service is not quite so commonplace as teaching or a secretarial job.

A second reason is that in the eyes of the novitiate, social work does not demand a talent nor a specific training. The girl who seeks to enter the profession is quite sure all she has to do is to knock at the door of any social agency and they will hail her as a long-sought savior. She usually finds out her sad mistake, but that is a matter I shall touch upon later.

A third reason—and the most compelling one—is the opportunity social service offers to forget her troubles. Consequently to its doors come the repressed, the timid, the unhappy, the moody and all the mentally halt and sick and lame. The misfits of the community are sure they will fit into the field of social service. Fortunately, many of them are recognized and not allowed to enter, but unfortunately all too many slip through, and the harm they do in attempting to solve their own difficulties in the light of some one else's problem is tragic.

Into these three main reasons can be easily fitted the subordinate ones: a desire to change one's job, to earn a living without special training, to get local color for future fiction, and so on.

Against this influx, stands the professional social worker. Her number is small and her task is large. She needs help and welcomes new blood and enthusiasm but she demands certain things of her recruits and they are the last things the recruits have considered.

FIRST, she demands physical and mental health. She knows the actual labor involved in a social worker's day, the hours of stair-climbing and tramping streets in all the vicissitudes of the weather, the hours of waiting for trains and doctors with fractious children and weary adults for companions. She also knows the depressions and discouragements that play havoc with one's mental processes unless they are of the soundest.

Second, but almost a corollary of the first, she demands ability to play and a sense of humor. To preserve good physical and mental health, one must know recreation apart from one's job and it must be recreation in the literal sense of the word—it must build again in a different atmosphere, a new world of lighter responses and gayer reactions.

A social worker must laugh not *at* but *with* her client. She must really see the funny elements in a tragic situation but never, oh never, must she be a Pollyanna with a conscious smirk.

Third, she must have adequate education, training and experience. Now, I enter upon a controversial subject whose

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arguments do not belong here. It so happens that those in the field of social work do not entirely agree among themselves as to the exact nature of these requirements, but I think I am fairly safe in giving as an essential minimum:

1. A college education or its equivalent and I would define as its equivalent a very clearly demonstrated ability to think logically.
2. Previous experience in handling people, in teaching, recreational work, or business.
3. Training in a recognized school of social work.
4. If such training is not possible, the willingness to serve a training apprenticeship in a large social agency of recognized ability.

SUCH requirements should stem the tide of undesirable popularity but unfortunately they do not. The profession itself is somewhat at fault here although the fault is largely one of youth. Social workers everywhere are working towards a standardization of their profession, both through small organized groups in local agencies and through cooperation with and membership in the now well-recognized American Association of Social Workers. But all this is as yet comparatively new and not sufficiently far-reaching to check the influx which pours in through every loop-hole and—disillusioned as rapidly—pours out, at a waste of time and labor to the social agency to say nothing of the harm done by ruthless and unskilled handling of delicate problems. For social service, if truly understood, should be an intelligent effort to see the other fellow's problem dispassionately in the light of his heredity, environment, personality and financial status and with the aid of this accumulated knowledge to help him to help himself. Can we adequately do this by curiosity or altruism or interest? No! But the years of study and training our schools of social work offer, and our experience, do provide the tools to do this very thing. They do not provide the points listed in my first three qualifications and without these, we can not handle the tools effectively.

Do you wonder that I say we must provide an antitoxin of common sense? Will not the requirements of the professional social worker as I have outlined them provide that common sense? These are common-sense requirements but the social worker must now get them across to that great outer world that knows so little of her profession.

To accomplish this, she must do two things: she must talk less of her cases and more about herself, and she must educate the educators so that the flood of enthusiastic novitiates will be stemmed at its outset and the ambition of the unfit diverted into other channels. These two steps are not easy steps. They involve overcoming old prejudices and forcing entrance into new fields. But these are matters social work has faced since its very beginning. Why not face them again?

To talk more of herself than of her cases may seem egotistical but stop and think a minute. Look at the big charity drives and community chest campaigns! What is featured? Sad cases, pathetic cases—weary mothers and undernourished children—all calculated to stir the hearts and open the purse-strings of the rich. How many of these donors ever stop to think of the personnel who administer the funds they give? They would not trust their investments or even their church giving to a fresh young thing in her twenties with a newly acquired A.B., but charity and social service must come from the heart, therefore age and experience are not considered by the public. But if a concrete picture could be placed before the eyes of this same public, portraying a social worker's day and the demands put upon her intelligence and ingenuity and, against that, the equipment many girls bring to face that day, I am quite confident that an intelligent, generous public would stand back of the professional social worker in her scarcely audible cry for better standards.

Having made her appeal to the general public, she must enter the schools and colleges from which her "raw material" comes. A well-dressed, well-poised and *well-trained* social worker, speaking from the chapel platform of her alma mater and spending a week in conference with enthusiastic upper classmen, can do more towards eliminating the undesirable, and stimulating the desirable in the field of social service than all the associations and professional or graduate schools ever founded. Remember, it is easier to keep out the undesirable than to put her out. I should like to add just one "tip" here, that such returning alumnae look not at the athletic and social leaders of the college community nor at those highest in scholarship but at the "also ran" group, those who are active and popular and whose scholarship is good but who do not surpass in any of these things. Too often the college leader is a flash-in-the-pan who dies out into a perpetual adolescence, but it is her able second mate who matures later that is the genuine success, justifying the potentialities she showed in college.

Let's go farther than college. Why should not social workers make friends among high-school deans and teachers of social problems in our modern high schools? Why should not the social worker talk over with the high-school teacher the problems that confront them both? Working together they could help each other to smooth out the difficulties in two closely allied professions and together they can know the material the high school is turning out. Why should not the high-school pupil know as much about the training and technique for social service as she knows about law or medicine or nursing or teaching? Who is there to tell her but the social worker? How can the social worker better approach her than through her class and instructor?

TO strike at an epidemic's beginnings is the only method to get it under control. To instruct the infected community in health measures that would prevent its return is the only way to insure safety. I am asking you who see social work as too popular a profession to stamp out its false popularity where it originates in high school and college and the minds of a public stimulated by drives and campaigns and to substitute for it the true popularity of interest in a stabilized profession which requires clarity of vision, tenacity of purpose and thoroughness of training. I am asking you who contemplate social work as a profession to ask yourself searchingly and sincerely, are you able to place yourself in the other fellow's place? Can you see a situation with sympathy, yet weigh it by the knowledge which investigation brings, and make a practical and impartial decision? Can you put other people's troubles away from you at the end of the day and take your part in the pleasures of living? Last of all, have you sufficiently solved your own difficulties so that you may see those of others unclouded by any projection of your own? If you can give an honest yes to these questions and are willing to train, study, and take orders, then not only will social work be preferred by you to all other professions but you will be by social work preferred.

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Crime in Massachusetts

I. Dubs and Dollars

By CHARLES A. GATES

IT'S a bad job. I'm almost ready to give it up. Every blessed time I talk with my friends about crime they insist upon painting the crime picture in colors of the deep-dyed murderer, the bandit and the professional criminal. And most of them—not all, thank goodness—formulate their various theories of treatment accordingly. Most of the public's education on crime matters comes through the public press; not case records. You can't blame the press for selecting the choice tidbits of human misbehavior, but we mustn't allow that fact to fool us. Just what is our problem in terms of criminals, and dollars spent for their treatment? Here are the facts in Massachusetts.

We have for the adult male and female offender, five state institutions, and seventeen houses of correction and jails operated by the counties, under state supervision. That makes a total of twenty-two penal institutions. Twenty-one of that number are concerned with relatively minor offenders; one, Charlestown Prison, keeps serious offenders, felons, persons in many cases whose maturity and records do not promise easy reformation. This one prison held an average of 852 prisoners in 1926. The twenty-one jails, reformatories, the state farm, the prison camp and hospital, and various houses of correction held an average of 5,805 prisoners in the same year. In addition to these institutionally treated delinquents, there were 1,253 on parole. Add the three bodies together: 7,910 adult offenders under treatment in Massachusetts in 1926. By percentage: 10.8 per cent were serious offenders in a penitentiary, 73.4 per cent minor and casual offenders in other institutions, 15.8 per cent parolees.

Now let's consider the cost. The net cost of treatment for those 7,910 prisoners was $2,319,566.91. The serious offenders cost $200.01 per capita, the minor offenders $326.84 each, and for every man paroled from state institutions there was paid exactly $34.22. Here's where the money went by percentage: 7.3 per cent of the total cost went to the state prison; 90.9 per cent went to care for our greatest problem, the so-called less serious offender; and 1.8 per cent of the state's crime bill was paid to the much overburdened and over-criticized parole system.

I know conclusions are not necessary, but one can't resist the temptation. Our criminal problem is, by cost, just a little over seven per cent a state prison problem in which must be included offenders against the public order as well as felons of more serious nature, the bandits, murderers and thugs. Yet most of our crime news in the newspapers is about this group of offenders. And the public's mind is made up that all treatment should be for the convict of their mind's invention, the vindictive, sharp-witted arch-demon. We hate to shatter the "true-story" dream, but here are the facts—more than 90 per cent of our harassed taxpayers' crime-expense is spent to protect society from a most mediocre colorless lot of "mutts," whom we never even get a chance to read about!

And we ought to feel ashamed, after reading of the excellent results of parole in Massachusetts, for we are judging it on a $34.22 per capita expenditure. What might be done if we spent, say, 5 per cent instead of 1.9 per cent of our budget on this penological sword of Damocles?

The nature of crimes committed in Massachusetts is changing. Crimes against the person have decreased from 10,145 in 1925, to 9,043 in 1926, to 7,962 in 1927. Crimes against property have decreased from 14,152 in 1925, to 13,826 in 1926, to 12,160 in 1927. On the other hand, the proportion of petty offences and crimes against the public welfare is increasing. We had 4,735 more motor-vehicle law violations in 1927 than in 1926. We had a bare 488 increase in drunkenness. Liquor law violations, narcotic law violations, non-support, and weapon-carrying held their own or decreased. Other offences against the public order, too numerous in nature to enumerate, but all of the so-called less serious sort, increased to the tune of 6,976.

Woodcut by Frans Masereel from Die Passion eines Menschen

Remember these figures when you talk about crime and criminals. And remember also that the criminal dub is the neophyte in the fraternity of crime. From his ranks we are to recruit our felons. Many of these minor offences might be prevented, if we knew how, and had the will to do it. The Department of Correction has the will to do it and is seeking earnestly for the answer to the question "how"? An advisory council of fifteen representative citizens of Massachusetts, headed by Dr. Richard C. Cabot of

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Harvard University, is diligently studying the facts of crime. Hundreds of case records have been analyzed and nearly 15,000 normal children have been studied. If this council can throw light on the difficult problem of the influencing factors in behavior, if it can show how society can in some way head off the incipient wrong-doer, its purpose will have been accomplished.

II. Psychiatric Signposts

By EVA L. SIMMONS

FOR three years Massachusetts has been trying the experiment of a state-conducted psychiatric study of the men and women who go to make up the population of the houses of correction, the county penal institutions. For this study, conducted by the Division for Examination of Prisoners of the Department of Mental Diseases, the state is divided into five districts, in each of which is stationed a unit which comprises social workers and a psychiatrist. The social worker interviews each prisoner, invites his confidence, and often gets light on the workings of his mind which guides the psychiatrist later. She then investigates the social setting, including inheritance, home, school work record, recreation and religious influences, and secures a comprehensive medical history extending, when possible, back to grandparents. The house of correction physician follows with a minute physical and neurological examination, and a psychologist gives a psychometric test. The district psychiatrist examines last, and then submits the complete report to the director of the division, who is a psychiatrist. The director summarizes the history, gives the final decision as to the type of physical or mental problem, and recommends suitable treatment. These recommendations, with the typewritten history, are then forwarded to the Department of Correction where the advised treatment is attempted.

In considering treatment, inmates are divided into groups according to the psychiatrist's findings: some who require care or training in institutions existent or suggested; some who would profit by supervision or friendly help in the community; some who seem to have been sufficiently corrected by the sentence so that no further trouble need be expected; and some who are classed as "hopeless," because we do not yet know how to deal with them.

A recent classification showed the greatest proportion to be chiefly problems of alcoholism: 31 per cent are those who would probably benefit, to quote the psychiatrist, "by a long period of treatment in an institution that will prevent the use of alcohol and provide training and occupation." Of these about one-third, or about 11 per cent of the whole, could profitably be paroled "after a period of treatment, under the supervision of a well organized outpatient department manned by psychiatrists and social workers." Since such an institution exists, as yet, only in hopeful plans for the future, nothing has so far been attempted for this large number of men and women. Nevertheless private agencies, already interested in some individuals, gain enlightenment from reading the personality studies.

A second large group, nearly 9 per cent, also has as yet no provision. These are the psychopathic delinquents, i.e., those whose intelligence is good (sometimes higher than normal) but whose emotions are undisciplined or destructive. These are recommended for long treatment in an institution where their segregation protects society and where right teaching can be patiently applied until it appears safe to give them another trial in the community. For these also nothing has been attempted, because we have not yet such an institution.

In cases in which transfer to a more suitable institution is advised, the sheriff is notified. The mentally diseased or epileptic have been found, so far, to comprise nearly 4 per cent, defective delinquents nearly 5 per cent; the feeble-minded, not essentially delinquent, 3 per cent. There are a few aged or sick who need infirmary care. In the recommendation for transfer, the need of special medical treatment is also emphasized. The sheriff, having authority over the county institution, may act according to his discretion.

We find 14 per cent classed as probably self-correcting after sentence; 4 per cent called "hopeless"; 4 per cent miscellaneous recommendations, such as deportation, transfer to prison camp or reformatory, or supervision under court auspices; and 28 per cent to be helped in the community by guidance and better teaching from the appropriate social agency. This last group seems the most interesting and promising. At the end of two years' trial it was found that of those for whom such help was asked, only 5 per cent had been again committed, as compared to the usual proportion of recidivism, which is about 50 per cent.

State and federal departments, among them the Immigration Bureau, show increasing appreciation and readiness to cooperate. The State Department of Health reports that of those inmates brought to their attention as needing continued medical treatment after release, nearly 100 per cent are attending clinics.

There has been a noticeable change in the response of private agencies, some of which say frankly that their policy had been to plan for the more promising members of the family and unconsciously to widen the separation between the family and its troublesome members—often the drinking father or the too adventurous older son. Now it is easier to see that closer cooperation and a better knowledge of the offending ones will accomplish more for families or groups as a whole.

One Children's Aid Society has extended its age limit to undertake the supervision, at home and at work, of boys and girls up to twenty-one years, after release from the house of correction. It is too early to show definite results, but several boys, or their parents, have voluntarily accepted this supervision.

Boys' clubs and Young Men's Christian Associations in various cities have extended their work to provide for young ex-prisoners whose chief need seems to be better recreation. Some of these clubs have special workers who go out to seek the boys referred to them. In other cases the secretary of the club promises special attention. In Boston the commissioner of penal institutions gives the boy before release a letter of introduction to the secretary of the boys' club, whose interest has been previously enlisted. With this the commissioner combines a personal word of advice as to the recreation recommended by the psychiatrist.

Social service departments of some mental hospitals are sending visitors to offer to the discharged prisoner help and treatment at the psychiatric clinics. In fair proportion, such offers have been accepted. The Florence Crittenden League of Compassion has undertaken, in addition to its work for unmarried mothers, a new department which provides care, either in its home or in the community, for young women

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who have come before the court or who have been released after a jail sentence. One of the difficulties has been the lack of social resources in rural districts, and the state federation of churches has evolved a plan by which the help of ministers will be enlisted.

That success in this new venture does not depend on strength of authority or central position of any agency has been made evident from the beginning by the ready response and resourcefulness of the family society of a town in the western part of the state. From the first request, men friendly visitors of whatever nationality needed, have been found—Big Brothers, regardless of age. Progress is reported in nearly every case. A recent letter about an epileptic woman who has served a sentence says, "At the present time, she is living with a nice French family in a pleasant home and appears well and happy. She is confident that her earnings will be sufficient for her support. We shall be glad to keep in touch with her and assist her in any way possible."

We hope that this same spirit will be revealed throughout the commonwealth.

What Is the Boy Problem?

By BERTHA B. HOWELL

In The Survey of January 15 (page 519) Adeline E. Dartt pointed out the lack of constructive case-working agencies for girls in their 'teens. A recent St. Louis study indicates that that city, and others as well, find a similar gap in case-work resources for dealing with boys.

WHAT is "The Boy Problem?" What are we doing about it?

There is much talk. We have "boys' work conferences," "boy life surveys," and so on, *ad infinitum*. We have even coined an impressive new word, "boyology." Sometimes it seems as if the whole community was "doing something" about boys; and yet even during the War, when boys were so much the center of every one's thought and planning, those of us whose job was primarily girls found ourselves woefully lacking in the tools for constructive case work with problem boys, and often had to do the job ourselves. Protective agencies for girls are taken for granted. They have become a standard part of any community's social program. But apparently no parallel type of service has been developed for boys.

Last spring the St. Louis Community Council set out to discover just what the situation was. We had our girls' protective agency doing case work with problem girls, utilizing the child guidance clinic for diagnosis and making some attempt to eradicate the conditions in the community that fostered delinquency. We had our Big Brother organization, assigning problem boys for the friendship and guidance of older men and helping to find them jobs. We had a flourishing Boy Scout Council; but there was no agency equipped to do the highly specialized and difficult job of case work with problem boys, whose plight was constantly coming to the attention of family case workers and girls protective workers throughout the city.

A questionnaire was mailed to the executives of community funds in all cities having a sufficiently large population to justify the existence of such a protective agency. The forty-nine replies received showed a startling lack of this type of service, whether provided by separate agencies or as a clearly defined part of the job of other agencies. In many cases, it even showed a total lack of understanding of what such service would mean.

THIRTY of the forty-nine organizations stated that no such organization existed in their community. Some of these mentioned the existence of group-work agencies, such as the Y.M.C.A., Boy Scouts, boys clubs and settlements, and the fact that their clubs were reaching a few problem boys. In one instance the statement was made that an effort was on foot to start such an organization, and in one instance, both Y.M.C.A. and Boy Scouts were said to employ case workers to do this type of work with the problem boys referred to them. Six cities reported the existence of Big Brother organizations whose volunteer service was based on case work. There seems to be an increasing emphasis on case work as a basis for the volunteer service in these organizations. Two cities reported that special bureaus of the police department were attempting to do this work. Juvenile protective associations, which worked with girls primarily, but carried also some boys' work, were reported in three cities, while child guidance clinics were mentioned in seven instances, either incidentally or as handling all case work with problem boys. In two cities a very interesting piece of work was reported by an Older Boys' Department of a child placing agency, and in one instance the combination of a boys' emergency home, boys' club, and case-work service was reported. Family welfare societies, humane societies, visiting teachers and institutions were named incidentally in a few cases, but there was not one instance of a separate boys' protective organization which paralleled the girls' protective agencies, and only nine instances of an apparently adequate service as an adjunct to some other type of work.

The fact that the most successful Big Brother organizations report that they are basing their service to an increasing degree upon a thorough case-work foundation, suggests a need. The fact that some group-work agencies are installing case-work departments as an adjunct to their service is also significant. We must need some such service. What shall it be? And how can we get it? The writer would like to see an earnest group of social workers, men and women, sit down around the table and ask each other:

Do our communities need a standard, specialized case-work service for problem boys?

If so, does the child guidance clinic entirely supply this need, or is there a place for a supplementary agency which offers less thorough and technical service?

If the latter, can this service most effectively be given in the case of boys by a group-work agency, a child-placing agency, or a family agency with a special boys' case-work department, by extending visiting teacher work throughout the year with men workers, by establishing case work as a basis in our big brother organizations, or by establishing a type of agency parallel to the girls' protective agency?

We certainly have "a boy problem." The machinery we have set up needs constructive analysis, criticism and reorganization. Can't we start to plan it together?

The Survey will be glad to hear from readers who feel they have a plan or a program to fill these gaps in a city's resources to help boys and girls grow up.

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A SURVEY of all research work in the United States in the field of crime and criminal justice has been undertaken by a special committee of the Social Service Research Council under the direction of A. F. Kuhlman of the University of Missouri, Justin Miller of the University of California, and Raymond Moley of Columbia University. One of the objectives of the study is the preparation of an exhaustive bibliography, making available to students of the subject a classified summary of existing data. Suggestions of material will be gladly received by Mr. Kuhlman.

THE PART which a woman's bureau can play in the work of a city police department is the subject of a recent issue of Public Personnel Studies (Volume 5, number 12, price 50 cents) published by the Bureau of Public Personnel Administration at the Mills Building, Pennsylvania Avenue and 17th St., Washington, D. C. At the present time some two hundred cities in the United States regularly employ policewomen. This study summarizes experience in the earlier experiments of having women police officers patrol beats in much the same manner as the men, or attaching one or more to each police station, and the third and most generally approved plan, of a woman's bureau as a separate unit of the police department, reporting directly to its chief executive, and concerned in large part with protective and preventive work with women and children. The possible plan for such a bureau in the District of Columbia, together with a series of partially standardized tests for policewomen are included.

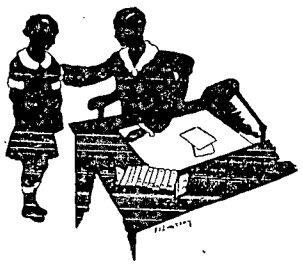
"SOCIOLOGISTS and social workers are not yet, perhaps, in the same universe of discourse, but if they are not speaking exactly the same language they are at least talking more and more about the same things," said Ernest W. Burgess, professor of sociology at the University of Chicago in a paper on the common concern of sociologists and social workers in case records at the Washington meeting of the American Sociological Society. "The perception that 'the relation of the individual to the group' is the basic problem both of research in sociology and of treatment in social work is at least becoming clearly recognized. . . . It is with the person, his group relationships, his memories and aspirations, his successes and his defeats, his goals and his projects, that sociologists and social workers alike are chiefly concerned."

To get insight into the life of a human being, delving below the external events—which "are not especially significant for understanding and treating him"—to the "moving springs of his behavior," Professor Burgess pleads for the revolutionary innovation of entering interviews in the case record in the first person, verbatim, allowing the client to tell his own story, as has been done in some instances by Dr. William Healy, by Dr. Edgar V. N. Emery at the Los Angeles Child Guidance Clinic, Clifford R. Shaw at the Institute for Juvenile Research in Chicago, Florence E. Nesbitt at the Chicago United Charities, Mrs. Harriet Mowrer at the Chicago Jewish Social Service Bureau, and others. (For still another instance of these see the stories of Jim and his mother by Pauline V. Young in The Survey, January 15 and March 15.)

Such a plan, Professor Burgess believes, would make the records really objective through showing the most significant "facts" of the client's life—his attitudes and his philosophy—in his own words, uncolored by the worker's judgment. He believes that the record in the first person need not be longer than that in the third; in both cases, it is necessary to select the relevant material. Obviously the whole record need not be in the first person; formal reports could be entered as at present, as could details of budget, records of changes in address and their social connotation, and the case worker's concrete knowledge of the neighborhood's social groups and institutions. But the family history should appear in the words of both husband and wife, together with pertinent verbatim statements of attitudes, ambitions, and problems. Both for sociological interpretation and social work technique it is essential also to record a diagnostic summary and statement of the proposed plan of treatment, the progress of the latter and a case review.

Such a use of the interview, Professor Burgess concludes in this paper, to be published in full in the May Journal of Social Forces, would place the record on a democratic and friendly basis, enriching the worker's own experience; would provide both a personal document and objective data from which all the staff concerned might draw independent conclusions; would furnish the documents for a diagnosis of the total situation, and tend to place social work treatment "upon a frankly empirical, experimental plane, so that both the original diagnosis and the method and technique of treatment may be subject to review in light of the acid test of the outcome."

UNDER the title School Children as Social Workers See Them, the White-Williams Foundation of Philadelphia tells the course of its decade of exploration and experiment on a new frontier. When the foundation started work in 1916, its first charges were the children who were leaving school to go to work. From their problems developed the departments of junior employment service, school counseling and scholarship work. Between June, 1917, and June, 1927, nearly 10,000 children received personal guidance and service; 822 of these were in the parish schools of the Archdiocese of Philadelphia, the first system of private schools to avail itself of the services of a social worker to bring the social case method of treatment to the individual child's problem. "Today, ten years from the inception of the work," declares the report, "it is recognized that the demonstration period is over." The junior employment service has already become a well-established part of the school system. School counseling and scholarship work still continue as the major program of the foundation. To this has been added the work of training school-counselors and students who are to be teachers. In this latter a new and inspiring project was started in 1927 in cooperation with the sociology department of the Philadelphia Normal School, whose staff have planned a new course in social service, required for all students, to acquaint them with the aims of social work and the social resources of the city. In response to their request, two White-Williams counselors are working in two of the schools of practice. Since 1922 the foundation has carried on a similar plan in connection with the department of education of Swarthmore College. Out of its ten years of experience, the White-Williams Foundation, in sympathy with the National Association of Visiting Teachers, has become convinced "that case work with children in the schools must be content to be largely remedial rather than preventive in nature, *if there is not combined with it* a definite program, in connection with universities and normal schools, for teacher training in the principles of mental hygiene. This is assuredly the next step toward a union of the aims of social work and education."



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Nursing Mr. Middle-Man

By VIRGINIA McCORMICK

SIBLEY AVENUE has two ends, a "right" end and a "wrong" one. At the right end stands a large, red brick house, set back in its lawns and trees. It belongs to the manufacturer whose factory is near the wrong end, down in the low land near the railroad tracks.

Still nearer the tracks and almost hidden in its gully is the rickety, three-room shack where Mina VanStee was ill. The visiting nurse to whom the case was reported, accepted the call as part of her routine. It was a warm, foggy winter and sickness was prevalent.

As the street car turned into Sibley Avenue, she passed the manufacturer's mansion and noted an ambulance in front of the house. At that moment the door opened and a uniformed nurse came out, followed by a servant with bags. The newspaper that evening stated that the manufacturer's wife was ill with pneumonia and was being cared for in the hospital.

As Sibley Avenue goes down its slight slope to its ultimate destination in the VanStee gully, the comfort of its houses sinks with it. From neat Dutch colonial villas, to four-family apartments, converted frame houses of a former day, it finally reaches the factories and, beyond, the shacks down the gully. In sickness, the door of the great house was open to the nurse and the door of the shack at the "wrong" end of the street. The manufacturer's wife could purchase nursing care in any amount and Mina VanStee was cared for by the privately maintained federated health agencies of her city. What of the doors between? Was sickness that winter confined to the very rich and the very poor? Certainly not.

Courtesy Visiting Nurse Association of Hartford, Connecticut

Of course, any one of the moderate salaried group in the middle distance between the rich and the poor, would go to the hospital in case of severe illness. If it were a matter of absolute necessity, he would engage the services of a nurse on a twelve- or twenty-four-hour basis, even though the cost were entirely out of proportion to his salary.

None the less Sibley Avenue was not being nursed adequately. At No. 27, Jim Brown, bank clerk, had bronchitis. His bride of two months whose entire youth had been spent at a typewriter, was weeping as she tried to carry out the doctor's orders.

There was a new baby at No. 39. Neither Emily nor her premature son was doing very well. But Emily's mother was there to look after things and pick up the baby when he cried.

In small, dark apartment C, old Mr. Lathrop needed more care than his aged wife could give. The doctor said a nurse would be good for both "just to look after them." They had too much pride to tell him they were living on a steadily diminishing principal which must be made to hold out a few more years.

And in another small apartment not far away were two nurses. One spent that afternoon shampooing her hair. The other cleaned the apartment. They did not dare go out for fear of missing the call to duty of which they stood in need. None of the three ill persons mid-way down Sibley Avenue felt they could afford those nurses. Yet the latter were not *profiteering* when they charged eight dollars a day. In fact, they hardly were *profiting*. For it was the nurses who paid for those long days of waiting (four months out of every year) hoping for a call to a case. The private duty nurse's annual income averages about $1,350. Something is the matter with a system that allows this wastage of nursing service when there is nursing to be done, when the nurse's wasted time on one hand is balanced against the large group of patients requiring only a modicum of skilled nursing care.

As a solution to the *impasse,* there is being evolved gradually a nursing service on an hourly basis, nursing service in terms of the patient's needs, not for twelve hours or twenty-four hours unless that is necessary, but for two hours, one hour, six hours, as the necessity demands. The work is being done in a score of cities. All of it is in an experimental stage. The ultimate developments are impossible to foretell. In some cities the hourly nursing is given by individuals on a free-lance basis; in some, through the nurses' registries; in many, through the Visiting Nurse Association.

In Buffalo, for example, the Buffalo Official Registry filled 7,819 hourly nursing calls in 1926. In 1927, the number of filled calls totalled 10,633, a conspicuous increase.

The visiting nurses of Brooklyn are instructed to receive some compensation always for their services unless the patient's circumstances are those of considerable poverty. This is done not primarily to increase income, although it works that way, but to increase the self-respect of the patient and to bring the service into the homes where it is needed. Under this arrangement Mr. Middle-Man does not become alarmed with fears of accepting charity—an idea not uncommon in relation to the V.N.A.

Hourly nursing in the home, group nursing in hospitals, the work of the Committee on the Grading of Nursing Schools, these, important as they are, stand, however, only as outward and visible signs of inward stress. They are the symptoms of a public need and a professional response.

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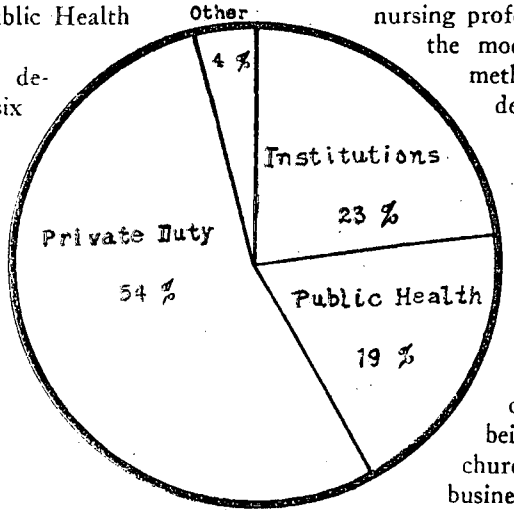
A survey was conducted early in 1927 by Louise M. Tattershall, statistician of the National Organization of Public Health Nursing, to determine the amount of hourly nursing being carried on in the visiting nurse groups in the country. In differentiating hourly nursing service from the more familiar V. N.A. type of nursing for which remuneration is accepted, Miss Tattershall defined the former as a service "paid for on a time basis and charged for at so much an hour or part of an hour" whereas the latter is a "service paid for according to the care given and charged for at a definite rate, as so much for delivery service, or so much for a treatment given." (The Public Health Nurse: August, 1927.)

With this distinction as a point of departure, it was found that in the forty-six organizations upon which the report was based, hourly nursing was being conducted by visiting nurse groups in forty-five cities of various population as follows:

Population group	Number of cities having organization reporting
Total	45
700,000 or more	3
200,000 to 700,000	7
100,000 to 200,000	12
50,000 to 100,000	10
25,000 to 50,000	8
10,000 to 25,000	4
Less than 10,000	1



Courtesy of Grading Committee

WHERE DO GRADS GO?

Per cent of over 20,000 graduate nurses actively at work in ten states, who belong to each nursing field

Conclusions based on this survey are summarized by Miss Tattershall as being (1) that "although nursing service at an hourly rate is available from a number of visiting nurse associations, this service in all probability is but a small part of the work of any of these organizations." (2) "There is a feeling that there is a need and a demand for an hourly nursing service." (3) "At present, calls are received mostly from patients and the greatest number of calls come for the care of chronics."

In the study of the work of registries in relation to hourly nursing service, now being made by the American Nurses' Association, reports received in 1927 show that hourly nursing is carried as part of the regular service by thirty-eight of the fifty registries to which questionnaires were sent. In seven other cities the work was being handled by V. N. A. organizations which had adapted their service to the need for hourly nursing on a pay basis. Three registries reported that no attempt had been made to do hourly work and two were in the process of establishing it.

The number of private duty nurses enrolled through official registries for the hourly service, varied from one and two, as was most often the case, to sixteen nurses in Pittsburgh, ten of whom were working on a full-time basis. This type of service is being conducted also by a number of nurses on a "free lance" or independent basis in more than forty cities. Not many of these nurses, however, are to be found in any one city—judging from the reports submitted—and these are almost entirely confined to the group of private duty nurses who have been doing that type of work for a sufficient number of years to have built up their own clientele. They are the exceptions to the registry rule.

From the reports of the fifty registries, it is indicated that hourly nursing work is being conducted by sixteen of these organizations on a very small scale, not because of lack of facilities, but because the public is not making use of the service. In each instance, the reason given is lack of information on the part of the community. Thirty-one registries stated a definite increase in the demand for hourly nursing service as soon as its value was realized on the part of patients. Growth in these communities, though consistently small, has been consistently steady, as the lowered cost of nursing service through the hourly plan, became recognized.

From these manifestations of endeavor on the part of the nursing profession to adapt itself to the needs of the modern mode of living and the new methods in caring for the sick, two definite points of departure can be evolved. First, if private duty nursing is to be reorganized to answer the needs of its community, there must be developed first in that community a consciousness of nursing practice in relation to community needs.

The "average man" of this generation is a community creature, consciously aware of his fellow-beings. In business, in recreation, in church, in golf, he believes in modern business methods. But when he becomes ill, all this drops away and he becomes an individualist. When Jim Brown joins his nursing needs to those of the Lathrops and of Emily and her baby, that entire neighborhood can be served in its nursing requirements by sharing the services of a nurse. Such, at least, is the principle of hourly nursing. But that service can come only in exact ratio to the demand, and demand will come only when there has been developed an awareness by Jim Brown of the needs of the other sick on his street in relation to his own nursing needs.

So long as Emily's mother looks after things, and Jim's wife does her ineffective best, and Mrs. Lathrop shortens her own days to soften those of her husband, and no skilled care is demanded, hourly nursing service will not succeed. An interesting aspect of this possibility of purchasing nursing care in packages small or large according to demand, is that the position of members of the household is not altered by the arrival of the nurse. Emily's mother still ministers to Emily's wants, the many small bedside needs. Jim's bride can still get him a glass of fresh water and smooth his pillow. And the nurse will be paid only for the skilled service she gives, which only she with her years of specialized training can give adequately. She will go from one patient to another, practicing her profession every hour of the day.

This grouping of community needs presupposes organization, and organization of private duty nursing service to meet the needs of the community is the second urgent necessity, or—shall we say—rather than organization the recognition by nurses, doctors and hospitals of the need for this redistribution of service. Writes Janet M. Geister, headquarters director of the American Nurses' Association:

In business and industrial establishments the principles of integrated organization and of equable distribution of labor are accepted as the best method of minimizing waste and increasing efficiency and lowering costs. Some fear that putting

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business methods into nursing practice will destroy the personal relationship between nurse and patient. The Visiting Nurse Association disproves this absolutely. The personal element between the visiting nurse and her patients is a conspicuous achievement in her work.

Reorganization in hospitals in such a way that one nurse through the group plan can handle three or four patients whose condition requires only a small amount of service, and in the homes through organized hourly nursing service, protects both patient and nurse. The patient receives adequate nursing care by a trained nurse whose credentials have been examined by her registry, at a price within his limited income. For the nurse it means regular and reasonable hours, assured salary, time for recreation, continuous practicing of her profession under supervision. Hence, opportunity for growth.

The elimination of "free lance" private duty nursing with its few professional contacts, its forced narrowness of scope, its lack of constructive supervision, would be a tremendous step forward toward the solution of the nursing problem. Eighteen thousand young women, averaging twenty-two or twenty-three years of age, are graduated yearly from schools of nursing. Of these, 54 per cent go into private duty. Among them are all degrees of capacity but it is an indisputable fact that the majority of them, trained for three years by strictest supervision, cannot arrive at their full potentialities without continued supervision of a constructive kind. Most people work best under supervision, whether by a bank president, a board of directors, a publisher or a master builder. There is no reason why nursing should be an exception.

We believe that private duty nursing reorganized through registry control will alleviate this situation, and that it will eliminate the wastage, to some degree at least, of nursing power and nurses' professional lives. It is hoped that it will distribute service to meet the needs of patients, in length of time adequate but not beyond their requirements, at a charge proportionate to the time expended.

Nursing today is primarily a community problem. Nursing groups are showing themselves eager to experiment with such plans as will best serve their patients. Unquestionably nursing service can be organized to meet community needs. Undoubtedly the Committee on the Grading of Nursing Schools, at work on the second year of its five-year survey, will furnish facts about the present organization of nursing strength which will call for a redefinition along several lines, including those of nursing education and distribution. Consideration of these problems of hourly and group nursing, and reports on the success of experiments along those lines tried in various cities during the past several years, are to be primary objectives of the biennial convention of the three national nursing organizations to be held in Louisville June 4 to 9—the American Nurses' Association with a membership of more than seventy thousand registered nurses, the National Organization of Public Health Nurses and the National League of Nursing Education.

But only insofar as the demand from the public warrants it, only so far as patient and nurse see themselves as cooperating for the best service of the community, will this change of method be possible. If present-day investigations into the nursing situation are to have results of any far-reaching significance, they will be laid upon the rock bottom of a consciousness created in the mind of the public and continued in that of the nurse, of the community implications in sickness as well as in health and of the resulting necessity for reorganization of private duty nursing with redistribution of nursing service.

When Jim Brown, Emily and her baby and the Lathrops realize their common needs and through the medium of a registry or visiting-nurse group share the services of a nurse, then, and not until then, will all the doors on Sibley Avenue be open to the ministry of the nurse, from the residence at the "right" end of the street to the shack at its "wrong" end.

Hospital Accounting and Social Education

Excerpts from the Medical Report of the Willard Parker Hospital for Contagious Diseases

By ARTHUR W. BINGHAM, M.D.

THE protection of patients brought to this hospital must be broader than medical treatment alone. It calls for the creation of efficient health customs in the family units of society; for the prompt recognition of illness, for its early correct diagnosis; for early appropriate treatment and early adequate care. If the medical care of the patients at the Willard Parker Hospital is to be done efficiently, there must be a system of medical accounting which will make available, at all times, to those responsible, complete information as to the quality of services given.

Medical accounting is just as necessary for efficient control of a medical service and just as important in reducing costs in deaths and days illness where patients are treated in large numbers, as is the budget for the control by the administration, of the costs in dollars and cents.

Life is but an opportunity limited by time. What is accomplished in a lifetime depends upon such an orderly sequence of events that quality may follow quantity, and waste be prevented, by the accuracy with which appropriate action is fitted to the individual's needs. Waste of life is quite clearly proved by the many lives cut short by a delay of only twenty-four hours in giving antitoxin in diphtheria. It is just as true in other acute infections where results cannot be so definitely demonstrated.

It is very evidently the duty of the first physician, who assumes responsibility for a case of diphtheria or other acute infection, to make a correct clinical diagnosis, to give appropriate treatment and to provide for adequate care at the earliest possible moment. Counter attack must follow attack in the first twenty-four hours of any acute infection if the lowest costs in deaths and days' illness are to be obtained.

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There are no results obtainable in late medicine so amazing in low human costs as those of early medicine and there is no evidence in this hospital that any exploiters of faith healing, advocating too late medicine, can divert the intentions of a hungry horde of pathogenic micro-organisms whatever momentary comfort may be imparted to their victim.

The medical care of large numbers of patients presents both added opportunities and added difficulties to those responsible.

The medical, nursing and social services must have definite objectives carefully planned in order to make united effort both effective and measurable. Medical service may be standardized by determining minimum requirements, but it is made efficient by insisting upon maximum objectives. Objectification, then, of medical service is the planning of the objectives necessary for recovery, and medical accounting is the recording of the results of efforts to realize these objectives. Tabulations make important information available for monthly conferences and yearly reports.

Mortality percentages, tables of secondary and complicating infections increasing both deaths and days' illness; tables of nursing hours, of physicians' hours as related to patient hours; of completeness of required records; of reasons for medical and surgical procedures and their results; of primary and contributing causes of deaths; of any service which is the right of the patients, for their recovery and restoration to their places in the community, are both practical and worth to the community the administrative costs. There was a mortality of 14 per cent in 50,895 cases treated in the Willard Parker Hospital during twelve years (1915-26). The expected deaths in 1927, at that rate, would have been 465. Our actual deaths were 244. A saving of these 221 lives means a saving to the community of a good deal more than all the money appropriated last year for new construction, repairs, upkeep and operation of the hospital. Whether the insurable value of a life is $10,000, $5,000 or less, or whether the patient is too young or too sick to care to live, no one, I think, will deny that a patient's right to a lifetime's opportunity in America deserves protection to the limit of the resources of any one who takes his responsibilities to heart, or accepts the privilege of caring for the sick.

IT is difficult to prove that every savable child admitted to the Willard Parker Hospital last year was saved, but the Medical Board should begin 1928 with the determination, in this war upon the acute infections, that the deaths of the unknown heroes, whom we failed to save, shall not have been in vain and their sacrifice shall be an inspiration to all of us to renewed effort in reducing unnecessary waste of life.

Courtesy Hospital Progress

A sixteenth century hospital ward. The Hotel Dieu, Paris.

There were 3,323 cases of acute infections cared for at the hospital in 1927 and the net human cost was 244 deaths, while the mortality percentage of those whose condition was not already hopeless at the moment of their admission to the hospital was under 3 per cent, a new low record. In 115 of the 244 deaths, a correct diagnosis was not made at the first opportunity by the physician responsible, in almost every instance the physician outside the hospital. There were 144 patients treated for an average of 4.2 days outside the hospital who were then sent in so desperately ill that they lived an average of only 15.5 hours after admission. The other 100 averaged 4.9 days outside and 7.7 days inside.

Delay was a factor in the death of a very large number of these patients. In over half, it was due to a failure of the outside physician to make a correct early diagnosis. In 55 of the 85 moribund diphtheria cases admitted, the first diagnosis was tonsilitis in 29, cold in 17, mumps in 4, teething in 1 and "not sick" in 4. Of the 12 moribund scarlet fever cases, 6 were diagnosed at first as grippe.

The mortality per cent of cases of diphtheria increased with every day of delay in giving antitoxin: when given in the first day of the disease, 4.3 per cent deaths; second, 6.9; third, 10.8; fourth, 16.; sixth, 21.7. In general, the mortality percentage of diphtheria doubles with every twenty-four hours of delay in antitoxin administration up to five or six days and then diminishes because by that time many of those who have survived have succeeded in making their own antitoxin. This is definite evidence that it is the duty of the first physician, who assumes responsibility for a case of diphtheria, not only to make a correct clinical diagnosis, but also to give antitoxin appropriately and to provide for adequate care at the first opportunity he has to do so.

From 1922 to 1926 inclusive, 12.5 per cent of all diphtheria cases were intubated (the placing of a metal tube in the wind pipe to prevent strangulation); 40.1 per cent of these died; that is, a five-year average of 138 intubations with 63 deaths in laryngeal diphtheria. In 1927, only 4.5 per cent were intubated, 64 were intubated inside the hospital with 9 deaths, and 8 outside with 3 deaths; total mortality percentage following intubation 16.6 per cent. This remarkable reduction in intubations and of deaths in intubated cases was made possible by direct inspection of the larynx and this should be done in every case of croup to determine the exact condition and the treatment required. Mechanical suction should be used for relief wherever this measure is sufficient to relieve the obstruction.

There were 145 instances where patients developed secondary infections. Of these eighty-two acquired their secondary infection in the hospital. This was due to a

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break in the protecting wall of loyalty and conscientiousness, through neglect of the aseptic technic which ordinarily prevents the spread of infections in the hospital. No patient acquiring any infection in the hospital died.

THE mortality of the 134 cases of pneumonia, developed before admission, was 53.7 per cent, while of the 73 developing in the hospital it was 30.1 per cent. This difference is a measure of the quality of treatment and care given inside the hospital compared with that given outside.

In the last five years, 1923-27, the Willard Parker Hospital has had 1,867 deaths less than in the previous five years, and in a total service of 16,438 patients a mortality of 9.1 per cent as compared with 34,457 patients treated in the previous eight years with a mortality of 15.7 per cent.

Kingston Avenue Hospital, Brooklyn, in the five years (1923-27) has treated 12,406 patients with a mortality percentage of 12.5 per cent, compared with 20,103 patients treated in the previous eight years with a mortality percentage of 14.8 per cent. The difference in these mortality percentages is startling if applied to the total cases of both hospitals. The Willard Parker Hospital percentage applied to the total of 28,844 cases would yield 980 fewer deaths then the Kingston Avenue Hospital percentage. Expressed in terms of insurable values at $10,000 a life, these 980 lives would be worth nearly ten million dollars.

This difference is a measure of either the greater difficulties at one hospital or the greater success of the medical care at the other. It is not due to the difference in the distribution of the population. It is true that Brooklyn has a more widely scattered population than Manhattan and the Bronx, but a study of the records at the two hospitals shows that the delay in giving antitoxin in diphtheria cases admitted to the two hospitals is nearly equal.

ADMISSIONS FOR ALL CONTAGIOUS CASES

	1926			1927		
	Cases	Deaths	Mortality Percentage	Cases	Deaths	Mortality Percentage
Willard Parker Hospital	3,013	294	9.7	3,323	244	7.3
Kingston Avenue Hospital	2,964	407	13.7	3,247	352	10.8

DIPHTHERIA CASES

	Cases	Intubated	Of which there died	Total Cases, all diseases	Ratio of secondary infections in the wards to those acquired outside
1927 W.P.H.	1,588	72	12	3,323	1.30 to 1
K.A.H.	1,503	197	49	3,247	2.38 to 1

CATARRHAL CROUP

1927 W.P.H.	100	8	3
K.A.H.	118	45	34

Nor is the difference due to the day of illness the patients were admitted. Willard Parker Hospital got its patients slightly earlier—more coming from other hospitals and institutions, but this is not sufficient to account for the disparity in the number of deaths.

The cause of the difference in mortality percentages and secondary infection ratios in the two hospitals must be looked for in the medical care in the two hospitals. The most striking difference in the medical treatment is the greater number of intubations resorted to in Kingston Avenue Hospital with the marked difference in the number of deaths following intubation. The greatest single gain in the years 1923-1927 at the Willard Parker Hospital was in the intubated cases. While Kingston Avenue Hospital intubated 15.7 per cent of its total diphtheria cases, Willard Parker Hospital intubated 6.7 per cent. While Kingston Avenue Hospital averaged 61 deaths a year in intubated cases, Willard Parker Hospital averaged 20. In 1927, three times as many were intubated at Kingston Avenue Hospital and five and a half times as many of the intubated cases died.

This comparison only demonstrates more strongly the tremendous importance of early medicine to hundreds of children and the necessity for the greatest care in all operative procedures.

The chief causes of death in these acute infections in New York City may fairly be said to be ignorance and self-interest, to which public and medical profession are both contributors. There seems to be little excuse for the failure of both in so many instances, to take full advantage of the many resources offered by the Health Department without cost. In the solving of the problem of the dumping of moribund cases on the hospital, social education has its opportunity to convince the public, and medical education to convince the medical profession, of the necessity of early medicine.

The education of the public to the necessity of early treatment and care, in the acute infections, should have the definite objective of reducing the number of dying children sent to the hospital when such transfers are hopeless and cruel. They should be sent in early if adequate care is too difficult, or impossible, at home.

The social service should use its opportunity in cooperation with education in this field to train social workers to help make early medicine the custom. Money relief of conditions directly causing or resulting from the diseases which belong to the responsibility of the Willard Parker Hospital should be in the form of a loan from a revolving fund formed by voluntary contributions. Social accounting should prove as valuable as medical accounting in meeting the just needs of our patients. This year it will be our purpose to extend this accounting system to the nursing and social services. As cooperation is of the greatest importance in the association of human beings, and as it becomes more complex the higher the level of civilization, so in a hospital service, a higher level of specialization and efficiency is only possible if there is unity of purpose and loyal cooperation in carrying out the necessary actions.

IN 1927 there were, at the Willard Parker Hospital, 144 deaths from diphtheria. Of these, 85 averaged only 15.5 hours in the hospital and were sick only four and one-half days. These deaths were due to delay on the part of parents and doctors. That of the parent is due to ignorance based on wrong customs. The most common of these wrong customs was the use of home remedies which delayed recognition of the diphtheria until too late. The chief cause of delay on the part of the doctor was making wrong clinical diagnoses when the opportunity of early correct diagnosis was given him. The changing of wrong social customs for right ones is the job of social education in developing the more successful adjustments and tabooing those that prove harmful. In meeting the needs of the Willard Parker Hospital patients, early medicine is essential and to obtain that for perfectly helpless, innocent victims of community diseases given them by grown-up-carriers, the intelligent and wholehearted cooperation of every available association is necessary.

Any menace to this cooperation must be regarded with suspicion, as anti-social, because such cooperation is absolutely

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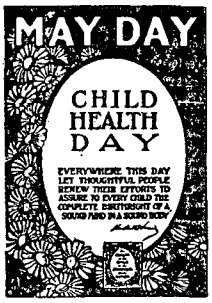
necessary for efficiency, and efficiency is absolutely necessary in preventing deaths and waste of life. In the preface of The Science of Society, Professor Keller says of Professor Sumner, "He cared for nothing whatever except the truth, and I hope I have worn his mantle in that respect if in no other." Many classes of men have been inspired by them with this spirit. All the services of the Willard Parker Hospital need such a spirit—a hunger for the truth, a hunger to find out what is right to do about it and then a determination to do it. In the carrying out of this policy the fullest cooperation is looked for from every one in the hospital in making our common effort to save these children



TO MAKE the spirit of May Day stretch through all four seasons is the aim of a pamphlet The Goal of May Day: A Year-round Community Child Health Program recently published by the American Child Health Association. Illustrations and reading lists aid in making its suggestions a concrete and helpful guide for home, school, church and other interested groups. It may be obtained from the offices of the association, 370 Seventh Avenue, New York City; price, 10 cents.

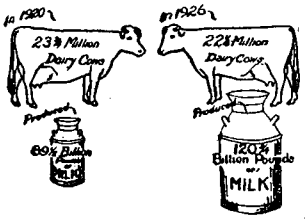
LECTURING before the Royal Anthropological Institute in London, Dr. A. H. Mumford, medical officer of the Manchester Grammar School, cited studies made at the school which disproved once more the old idea that the bright boy is puny and knock-kneed, and the champion athlete is likely to be a beefy-headed nit-wit. As in Professor Terman's California studies, excellence in physical development was found generally to be associated with superior intellectual attainment. Accurate measurements showed that the boys who won scholarships at Oxford and Cambridge tended to display somewhat accelerated physical growth, as compared to the average boy, and slightly better physical frame. About one boy in ten in the group of 7,000 studied, won athletic "colors" for prowess in one sport or another; while among a group of 215 possessing special mental ability, the color winners were one in three. These and similar figures tended to show, he felt, that "the growth of the human frame should be viewed as a unity and not as one of mind or body alone."

ATTRACTIVE, authoritative and concrete is the collection of menus and recipes published by the National Federation of Day Nurseries in the pamphlet Every Child's Dietary for Mothers and Children. Recipes are arranged both for single servings and "quantity orders." The booklet, which is warmly endorsed by eminent child specialists and nutrition workers, was prepared by Pearl S. Shackelford, nutrition adviser of the New York Tuberculosis and Health Association, and is prefaced by a foreword by Mrs. Hermann M. Biggs, president of the National Federation. Copies may be obtained from the offices, 105 East 22 St., New York City: price 25 cents plus postage, the single copy, with discounts of 5 per cent for fifty, or 10 per cent for 100 or more.

SPRING STYLES for nurses may include modish paper costumes, if other cities follow Milwaukee's plan recently reported in The American City. According to a scheme worked out by the deputy health commissioner of that city, Dr. E. V. Brumbaugh, a seamstress is kept busy cutting out and making sixty-six paper gowns a week to supply the visiting nurses of the health department. The gowns cost about 50 cents a piece and will survive eighteen or twenty tryings on. They are used by the nurses in homes in which there are communicable diseases—such as scarlet fever or diphtheria—a different gown, carried in a sterile paper bag, for each home, kept to be used on successive visits and burned when its usefulness is over or the need for the nurse is past.

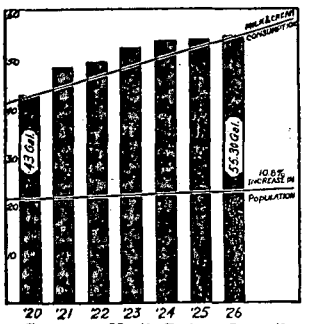
MENTAL DISEASE is a social problem of the first importance, said Dr. C. Floyd Haviland in an address at the last annual meeting of the National Committee for Mental Hygiene, published in the current issue of the Mental Hygiene Bulletin, both because of its magnitude and because of the many and serious social situations in which it plays a conspicuous part. At the time of the federal census of institutions in 1923, there were 270,000 mental patients in hospitals, sanitariums, and the like, a greater number than the combined population of all the general hospitals in the country. In 1922, the last year for which national statistics of first admissions are available, 75,000 new patients entered institutions for mental disease. The experience of New York shows that the problem is still growing. Until recently the annual net increase of the state mental hospitals has been about 1,000 patients. For the year ending in September, 1927, that figure rose to nearly 2,000, and the first months of the present fiscal year indicate that its total may show a net gain of 2,600 patients. On this basis the state of New York would be required to build a new state hospital every two years, at a cost of some ten million dollars, merely to take care of current needs, without making any inroads on the very serious amount of overcrowding—at present about 10,000 patients, or, an excess of more than 31 per cent. Similar conditions are present in the other states. "In the presence of such statistical data," said Dr. Haviland, "it is hardly necessary to stress the social and economic significance of mental disease, and hence, in formulating plans of work for the National Committee and other mental hygiene agencies, emphasis must be placed in the future as in the past upon direct preventive effort and better care in the treatment of the mentally disabled if the social menace of mental disease is to be successfully handled."

WHILE the various campaigns to promote milk-drinking go merrily on, and with apparent success, the American Child Health Association has been carrying on a series of campaigns to see how safe is the milk that is drunk, and what precautions should be taken to increase the public safeguards of the milk supply. In 1923, in surveying the health activities of eighty-six cities in the 40,000-70,000 population group, the association found that less than a quarter pasteurized 90 per cent or more of their milk.



Courtesy Nat'l Dairy Council

A recent survey of 117 cities of less than 25,000 population finds that only two have adopted this precaution generally, while in only nineteen did half the milk, tested by physical standards, deserve the epithet "clean or fairly clean." Similarly low standards were apparent in bacteriological examination, while in 109 towns and cities none of the milk was iced during delivery, and in only nine was 50 per cent or more protected in this way. The problem of these small cities, with a total of 25,000,000 inhabitants is, the association finds, "to awaken to the need for the production of clean milk rendered safe by pasteurization. This requires the passage and enforcement of a proper milk control ordinance. Most American cities have safe water supplies; most American cities need to secure safe milk supplies."



Courtesy Nat'l Dairy Council

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Negro Workers and the Unions

By CHARLES S. JOHNSON

FOR several years after the great exodus of Negroes from southern agriculture to northern industry began, no one knew how many Negro workers had been taken into the unions, or what the status of colored workers was in relation to organized labor. This confusion prompted a study of Negro workers and the unions, which is still in progress, sponsored by the American Fund for Public Service through a grant to the National Urban League. What I set down here is merely a preliminary report.

Peculiar difficulties enter into the Negro situation. Where relations are most friendly the disposition has been to disregard race and color, classing colored workers as "Americans." This policy, the final objective of those who insist upon full inclusion of Negroes in labor unions, makes it hard to gauge the present degree of this inclusion. The United Mine Workers, with 500,000 members, the United Garment Workers and, to a lesser degree, the International Brotherhood of Longshoremen, the Hod Carriers and Building Common Laborers are cases in point. The survey so far includes the locals of forty-eight national and international unions affiliated with the American Federation of Labor with a combined membership of 1,527,248; Negro membership in locals in Chicago, New York, Detroit and Washington, D. C., and in the states of New Jersey, Delaware, Minnesota, Idaho, Connecticut, Maryland, Pennsylvania and Ohio; the mine workers of West Virginia and Pennsylvania, organized under the United Mine Workers Union, which has a membership of 500,000 not included in the total above; the three large independent Negro unions, the Railway Men's Independent Benevolent Association, the Dining Car Men's Association, and the new Pullman porters' organization.

The total Negro membership in these various organizations is 65,492. This number, while derived from several sources, has been carefully checked and should be regarded as a minimum figure. The largest numbers of Negroes are members of the Longshoremen's Union, with about 15,000; the Hod Carriers and Building Laborers, 8,000; the musicians, 3,000; the garment trades, about 6,000; the Hotel and Restaurant Employes, 1,000.

Questions raised today concerning Negro workers and trade unions are much the same as those that arose when emancipation of the slaves made Negroes a sudden menace to free labor. The Knights of Labor, predecessor of the American Federation of Labor, received Negro workers more cordially than they are now received. The liberal policy was prompted as much by fear as by fellow-feeling. The debate on the admission of Negroes before the historic Baltimore congress, just after emancipation, brought out the statement that "Negroes will take possession of the shops if we have not taken possession of the Negroes."

Drawing by Aaron Douglas, for Ebony and Topaz, published by Opportunity, New York

The menace of Negro workers was for several decades lessened by foreign immigration in the North and by the gradual crowding out of skilled Negro workers in the South.

The first labor organizations were in the skilled crafts, and many of these began as lodges which excluded Negroes on the broad principle of social inequality. Also, early labor organizing was done in sections of the country in which there were few skilled Negro workers and in lines of work in which Negroes were not engaged. The War checked immigration and created a scarcity of labor. At the same time it brought about a tremendous shift in the Negro population from the South to industrial areas of the North.

At the Atlantic City convention, nearly fifty of the 110 unions affiliated with the A. F. of L., in response to the urging of the

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Executive Council, reported that they raised no barrier against Negro workers. The convention authorized the formation of federated locals of colored workers refused membership in any international. Although only eight of the member organizations of the A. F. of L. now expressly bar Negro members, their status has not changed greatly in fields from which they were originally excluded. The recent policy of the A. F. of L., in favor of the unionization of Negroes, has been a coldly logical one, without the force of general agreement or official power behind it.

IN our study, we have found eight types of union relations between white and Negro workers.

Eleven international unions exclude Negroes by constitutional provision or ritual. This group, which includes the railway unions, the boiler makers, the machinists and the commercial telegraphers, has a total membership of 436,200 and controls a field in which a minimum of 43,858 Negroes are employed.

There is little difference between this forthright exclusion and the policy of a second group which, having nothing in its constitution against Negro membership, yet discourages it and succeeds in keeping the numbers small. Outstanding among such unions are the electrical workers, with 142,000 members, practically none of them from among the 1,343 Negro electricians; the sheet metal workers, with 25,000 and no known Negroes; the Plasterers Union with less than 100 Negroes among its 30,000 members in a trade having some 6,000 colored workers; the plumbers and steam fitters with 35,000 members, and a long history of successful maneuvering to avoid Negro membership, though there are 3,600 Negro workers in the trade.

A third group of unions admits but does not encourage Negro membership. These include the carpenters, with 340,000 members and only 592 Negroes. The unions are not wholly responsible for the racial situation in this class of labor organization. When skilled Negro workers in independent crafts outside factories place themselves under union jurisdiction and cease bargaining individually, all other white workers are given preference over them both by employers and officials who have the assignment of jobs. If the Negro works for other than union rates, in order to work at all, he is subject to a fine or suspension. In cities where these unions are in control, it is extremely difficult for Negro workers to gain admittance.

A fourth group includes unions like the musicians, hotel and restaurant employes, journeymen barbers, United Textile workers, cooks and waiters, and the American Federation of Teachers, which admit Negroes freely but only to separate unions. The most successful of these are the musicians, who find an advantage in separate organization, and the regulation in certain locals making the Negro union subservient to the rules of the white local does not seem to interfere with the freedom of Negro members.

A FIFTH type of regulation admits Negroes freely to mixed or separate unions. In these are included the largest Negro membership, the longshoremen, hod carriers and common building laborers, and tunnel workers. These are not skilled trades, or trades requiring apprenticeship, and they are lines of work in which Negroes are freely employed.

The United Mine Workers and the garment workers admit Negroes only to mixed unions. In the first, discrimination among members and locals is discouraged with the threat of a fine. In the second, because the clothing industry centers about New York and Chicago and is largely Jewish and foreign-born in membership, racial sentiment against Negroes is not strong.

Among the independent Negro unions are the Railroad Men's Independent and Benevolent Association, a protest union composed of railroad men barred from the regular craft unions; the dining-car men's association; and the new Pullman porters' organization controlled by white men. Practically all dining-car men are Negroes and there is no question of competition. The policy of the Pullman porters is still unsettled.

Finally, there is a group of unions organized in fields where few Negroes are definitely barred. This includes Pullman conductors, railway engineers, pattern makers, operative potters, leather workers and others. Here Negroes suffer from lack of skill and the lack of opportunity to gain skill because of restrictions imposed by employers who will not hire them and union members who will neither instruct nor work with them.

Where the trade unions have been open to them, Negroes have entered as freely as white workers. In Chicago, the proportion of Negro men in labor organizations is more than twice their proportion to the total population. This, of course, is partly because there is relatively a larger proportion of Negroes in industry. But in considering whether Negroes can be organized as easily as white workers, it must also be borne in mind that the great mass of Negro workers are employed in fields which are not yet unionized. For all classes, agricultural and domestic workers (unorganized lines) constitute 34.5 per cent of the working population; for the Negroes, 67.3. Again, the greatest degree of organization is to be found in the North, and four-fifths of the Negroes live in the South. The skilled trades are those most thoroughly organized, but three-fourths of the Negroes are unskilled.

ONE reason for the hostility of white to Negro workers is the fear of them as strike breakers. The fear is warranted, for not only is there a menace to union objectives in the availability of Negro workers, but it has so happened that many of the greatest advances which Negroes have made in industry, many of their first opportunities, are due to strikes and their part in breaking them. They were used to break the stockyard strike, and they have been employed there ever since; they were largely responsible for the failure of the steel strike, and they now make up 17 per cent of steel mill workers; they were used in the great railroad strike of 1922, and about 700 Negroes, mostly skilled, are still employed by one system alone. They are being used at present in the anthracite coal strike in Pennsylvania and in the strike of bakers and confectionary workers in Chicago. The list could be continued indefinitely.

Precisely the opposite situation has occurred when Negroes have been inside the unions. In the West Virginia coal strike of 1922 there was the peculiar situation of the mine owners putting their faith in Negro recruits and the miners' union depending on the stamina of its Negro membership to hold its position. As longshoremen they have stayed with their organization in times of conflict, in spite of the fact that Negro strike breakers were used against them. Union officials agree that as union men, Negroes are as faithful to their obligations as are white members.

The really important fact is that Negro workers, one

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million strong in the North, with other labor supplies limited, are having their first real contact with skill. They are increasingly eligible for admission to the old crafts which are still disposed to think of them as usurpers, taking white men's jobs. The gaps being made in skilled lines by promotion, retirement and death cannot be filled entirely by native white workers or the reduced immigration. It is the pressure of this situation, taut and vital, that has promoted this study, the final results of which may enable Negroes, employers and unions to take the next step with their eyes open.

Who Makes Your Candy?

By MARY DEWHURST BLANKENHORN

IT is time to rub our eyes. The Industrial Survey Commission has said that industrial standards are so high in New York State as to make it difficult for manufacturers there to compete successfully with those of other states. What Utopia is this? What industrial standards are these?

If we read the report just issued by the Consumers' League of New York on the candy industry in New York City, we shall be inclined to comment on New York's industrial Utopia as the Irishman commented on the headless, armless Winged Victory: "If that's Victory, Oi'd like to see the ither lady." The report points out that candy manufacture is one of the darkest spots in the state's industries, enjoying the honor of the lowest scale of earnings in all the five great women-employing industries in the state. "The facts disclosed in the present study," writes Lillian Symes, field secretary of the Consumers' League, in summarizing her investigation, "supplemented by the figures furnished by the State Department of Labor, would indicate that the two major tragedies of the industrial worker's life —low wages and unemployment—are particularly keen in the case of the candy worker."

The investigator was not to be content with questioning the manufacturer or the worker about wage rates. She herself secured employment in twenty-five candy factories, and surveyed conditions from the inside. Neither her employers nor her fellow-workers knew that she was an investigator. From this point of vantage she found that official statistics reporting the median wage for candy workers as $13.75 per week, painted none too bright a picture. In half of the twenty-five factories she was offered a beginner's wage of $12 a week, and in nine of the remainder from $14 to $15. But after a week in one of the latter factories, she found that her promised wage of $14 had dwindled to $10.40 of cold cash in the pay envelope:. There had been deductions for a holiday, and for time lost on the first morning while she was waiting, among seventy others, to secure a job. The older women, who had been turned away because industry wants "smart young hands," had thought her lucky on that Monday morning; yet here she was on Saturday with $10.40. As she continued her round of the factories, she found that a temporary breakdown or stoppage of machinery made a hole in the pay envelope. She found that when a girl was "promoted" from a time basis to a piece basis, she would curtail her lunch hour to make up for time lost in cleaning her machine. She found the girls completely baffled by the mysteries of a bonus system, which promised much and somehow never fulfilled. But the foreman said:

"If I explained it to you, you wouldn't understand it anyway, so there's no use wasting time."

MOST striking of all, she found that the beginning wage ($12 in more than half the factories) was much more important in this industry than most. For the worker is constantly changing her job in hope of something better. ("I guess I'll try at Blank and Blank's next week," was a comment heard in almost every factory toward the end of the week. "I've heard they pay well.") Moreover, the industry is highly seasonal, with the two peak seasons before Christmas and before Easter. One factory reported laying off 40 per cent of its workers during the summer slack season, when candy cloys the roof of even the flapper's mouth, and admitted a turnover of from 300 to 400 per cent during the pre-Christmas rush alone. Yet every time a girl signs up for a new job, though she may have been "in candy" for four or five years, she starts at a beginner's wage.

Most of the girls are young, and they report that they live at home because they probably won't get the job if they report otherwise. One employer pointed out that no girl could live decently on $12 or $14 a week, unless she lived at home! The following budget is eloquent of the struggle of the girl who does not live at home:

Board and lodging (with 2 meals)	$10.00
Extra lunches	1.00
Clothing	2.00
Doctor and dentist	——
Carfare	.80
Recreation	.40
Self-improvement (reading matter, etc.)	.20
Savings	——
Cleaning and laundry	.30
Incidentals	.50
	$15.20

AS this girl was earning only $15 a week, it is obvious that she neglected the admonitions of the savings bank advertisements to "live within your income." But even at that, she had nothing for doctor and dentist, her lunches averaged only sixteen cents apiece, and she must have done most of her own laundry. And it is safe to surmise that there were lunchless days in the weeks when she was making up for the twenty-cent overdraft shown on this budget.

How can the candy workers be brought nearer to the high industrial standard which other industries in the state are said to enjoy? Their problem is peculiarly difficult. Attempts to organize them have failed, and the failure does not surprise any one who is familiar with the large turnover, the uncertain employment, and the extreme youth of most of the workers. As the Consumers' League report says: "Perhaps no other group of women workers in our midst is so unorganized, so young and so inarticulate—therefore so helpless."

The state must help those who cannot help themselves. But as the Supreme Court has held mandatory minimum-wage legislation unconstitutional, some other way had to be sought. It has been found in the form of a "fair wage"

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bill now before the legislature. This bill, following the example of Massachusetts, aims to raise the wages of women and minors in any given industry, not by compulsory legislation but by what might be called moral suasion. Under it the labor commissioner may authorize a study of the wages of women and minors in industry, and may concentrate on the improvement of such standards in any industry, such as the candy industry, in which he finds wages exceptionally low. He may form a committee of employers and employes within the industry, to discuss the wage problem with him and to recommend a fair wage. This fair wage is then announced to all employers in the industry. If any employer fails to maintain the recommended wage, the Labor Department may give full publicity to his failure in the newspapers throughout the state.

The publicity method offers particular promise of relief to the candy industry. The large unit is becoming more and more common among candy-makers, and with it the widely advertised trade name. The candy manufacturer has spent thousands of dollars to make his name known to the consumer; he has reason to fear lest the stigma of low standards he attached to that expensively famous name. If he fell below standard, he would receive, under the fair wage bill, the one kind of free publicity that he does not relish.

For the other abuses which the investigator found—long hours, needless fatigue, neglect of medical inspection, and above all, shockingly insanitary conditions—the Consumers' League has decided to resume its old policy of publishing a white list, for the protection of the candy consumer as well as of the candy worker. In an industry where half of the factories investigated were described as "unnecessarily dirty" and a clean bill of health was given to only three out of the twenty-five, a white list may be justified on the grounds of public health alone.

School and Job in Philadelphia

By JOHN A. FITCH

WHY girls of fourteen and fifteen leave school to go to work, how far they are in school when they drop out, how they like school and job, what they do with their leisure time—these are some of the questions dealt with in a recently published study of five hundred such girls in Philadelphia. (The Young Employed Girl, by Hazel Grant Ormsbee: The Woman's Press, New York, 1928. 124 pages. Price $1.00 postpaid of The Survey.) The report is the result of a survey made in 1924 and 1925 by students in the Carola Woerishoffer Graduate Department of Social Economy and Social Research at Bryn Mawr College and is notable for the extent of the study and the thoroughgoing character of the work. Five hundred girls between the ages of fourteen and sixteen, enrolled in continuation schools in Philadelphia, were included in the study and the conclusions are based upon "personal, private, friendly and informal interviews" with these girls, and on information obtained "by visiting 263 homes, where in each case the investigator talked with the father, with the mother, or with some member of the family." There were altogether 3,867 girls in Philadelphia in the age group covered attending continuation schools in 1924. The group studied included therefore nearly 13 per cent of the whole number.

Retardation in school is perhaps the most striking fact that emerges in this report. Only 113 or about 23 per cent were normal or accelerated. Thirty-two per cent were retarded one year, 37 per cent two years and 6 per cent were three years behind normal girls of their age when they dropped out of school. All had completed the sixth grade as the law requires, but "only one in four had finished the 8th grade and only one in twenty-five had completed a year or more in high school." How much of this retardation is due to mental handicap could not be stated with definiteness since the results of psychological tests were not available. One is impressed, however, with the fact that home conditions were frequently such as to discourage progress in school. Of the homes visited, 39 per cent were "struggling against some definite form of social maladjustment," including death, desertion, illness, accident or unemployment. It is impossible to draw definite conclusions from the data presented, but it is worthy of note that in the case of twenty-nine girls whose fathers were dead, twenty-two were retarded; all of the five who had lost their mothers were retarded, and in the thirteen cases where the father had deserted eleven were retarded. Altogether 47 per cent of the girls from "handicapped" homes were retarded two or three years, as against 20 per cent in the homes designated as "fairly prosperous."

Of the 500 girls, 220 are said to have left school for economic reasons, and 280 because they "disliked school." The group could not be classified on this basis, however, because some of the girls in the group leaving school for economic reasons disliked school as much as the others.

The attitude of these girls toward school as they revealed it to the investigators is extremely interesting, though it is by no means certain what conclusions should be drawn from it. One hundred and sixty-three stated definitely that they liked school, yet fifty-four in this group were retarded two years or more. On the other hand, one hundred and sixty-five who were "fairly normal in school progress" expressed a distaste for school. One hundred and sixty-two who were retarded two years or more had no interest in regular school work.

Alongside these attitudes toward the "regular" school is a fact that must arouse interest at once in the continuation schools at Philadelphia. Four hundred and thirty-eight out of the five hundred "expressed themselves positively" as favoring the continuation school, and only twenty-six "actively disliked it." Still more impressive is the fact that of the three hundred and thirty-three who disliked regular school, 83 per cent said they liked the continuation school.

There was not equal definiteness about work. The usual attitude was hardly positive one way or the other. At best it was one of indifference which was in sharp contrast to the definite reactions, either favorable or unfavorable, to school work. This fact ought not to be very reassuring to those who feel that the factory is the logical recourse when the school fails. None of these girls had been at work more than two years. Most of them had had a shorter work experience than that. They were at the age when enthusiasm is easily aroused. Yet they were indifferent. School, which

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they had known for six to eight years, commanded their loyalty or their positive dislike. If factory work kindles no enthusiasms, even at the outset and even among those to whom it is a door of escape from the hated school-room, what sort of attitude will it be able to evoke after five or ten years of working life?

There is an interesting chapter on the use of leisure time, which is impressive mostly for what it shows as to the need of recreational opportunities for girls of the group studied. This field is covered with commendable thoroughness and shows some significant differences in taste between the retarded and normal girls.

The chief conclusion of the book is identical with the thing that impresses itself most deeply on the reader—the great need of facilities for counselling and guidance. Leaving school, finding a job, adjustment in it—all these involve decisions that are momentous to the child and ultimately to the state.

THE NUMBER of persons out of work on January 1 was 1,874,050, Secretary of Labor Davis reports in response to the resolution of Senator Wagner asking for the figures on unemployment in this country. This figure represents the shrinkage between 25,222,742, the estimated number of employes (persons working for others for wages or salaries) in 1925, according to computations submitted by Ethelbert Stewart, commissioner of labor statistics, with Secretary Davis' report, and 23,348,602, the calculated number of employes of January, 1928, upon the same basis. Employment in New York State dropped 5.8 per cent between January, 1927, and January, 1928, while in Massachusetts the figure was 9.7, and in Oklahoma—the greatest decrease—19.7 per cent. Floods in the Mississippi Valley and in New England, and the tornado in Florida, as well as temporary closings in a part of the major industrial plants and the long strike in the bituminous coal fields have temporarily decreased the opportunities for employment, Mr. Davis reports, and these factors have adversely affected employment conditions in other lines of industry. He also mentions improved machinery as responsible for part of the unemployment. A considerable number of prospective laborers were added to the population in 1927, in the 252,000 immigrants admitted and the annual average influx of 205,000 from farm to city, with the 2,000,000 boys and girls who each year reach the working age. The volume of employment has tended downward from April, 1927, up to and including January, 1928. The February report, however, shows an upward trend. "The present slump in employment, while not so extensive or grave as the estimates which have been generally circulated, is nevertheless serious," Mr. Davis says, but he predicts "prompt relief" through public works programs of federal, state and municipal governments.

LABOR in Southern Cotton Mills, a study by Paul Blanshard recently published by the New Republic, Inc., for the League for Industrial Democracy (25 cents), is of special interest in view of the steadily increasing importance of southern industry and the general ignorance of the facts behind its growth. "Low standards of labor in southern mills have already interfered with northern and western factory labor standards and threatened the most precious gains that labor has made in the last generation." The cotton manufacturing industry has become, since 1900, one of the most important in America, and the South is working its spindles much harder and more profitably than spindles are worked in the North. Many southern mills run almost all day and all night while their northern competitors are running an eight-hour day.

Some of the not generally recognized facts which Mr. Blanshard brings out are that the southern manufacturers do not rely chiefly upon women and children for their cheap labor. "Women workers do not comprise more than 40 per cent of the working force and the proportion of men is increasing. . . . Child labor is one of the least of the industry's problems, especially if we define children as persons below the age of 14. Every cotton manufacturing state in the South now has laws on its statute books prohibiting the labor of children under 14 in the mills. . . . In many cases the conscience of the employer in relation to child labor is superior to the conscience of the parents."

It is the long hours and low wages which stigmatize them. Many of them retain the eleven-hour day and twelve-hour night, and all southern states allow night work for women. The figures of the Census of Manufactures of 1923 show that the average annual earnings in 1923 of the cotton-mill workers of Alabama, Georgia, South Carolina and North Carolina (the latter the best paid of the southern group) were $641.97—a weekly average of $12.35. The cost of living is much higher than northerners generally assume it to be. Families keep going because all the eligible members go to work, and they are all expected to work for the same employer.

Useful Pamphlets

ACCIDENT FACTS, 1927 *prepared under the direction of the Statistics Committee, National Safety Council, 108 E. Ohio Street, Chicago.*

A review of the sources of information and the progress in obtaining statistics during 1926, with a presentation of "the latest fund of accident information" for use in accident prevention.

OPPORTUNITIES AND CONDITIONS OF WORK FOR MINORS UNDER 18 IN THE GLASSWARE INDUSTRY. *Bureau of Women and Children, Department of Labor Industry, Harrisburg, Pa.*

A study of 20 Pennsylvania establishments manufacturing bottles and other small glassware products, in which large groups of minors are employed. Data on number and age of boys and girls employed, methods of production, hours of work, strains and hazards of work and protection provided, sanitation and service facilities, opportunities for advancement.

WAGES, HOURS AND PRODUCTIVITY IN THE POTTERY INDUSTRY, 1925. *Bulletin of the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, No. 412. Government Printing Office, Washington.*

A study of American potteries "engaged in the production of semivitreous or vitreous general ware" (table ware) and of the 13,000 wage earners they employ.

MORE POWER TO YOU, *by Evelyn Preston. L.I.D. Leaflet No. 3. League for Industrial Democracy, 70 Fifth Ave., New York. Price, 5 cents.*

A popular discussion of the uses of power in modern industry and modern homes, of the rates and organization of the great power companies, and of the possibilities of public ownership and operation.

ORGANIZED LABOR'S MODERN WAGE POLICY, *with an introduction by William Green. Price 10 cents.*

WAGES AND LABOR'S SHARE, *by Juergen Kuczynski and Marguerite Steinfelt. Price 20 cents. American Federation of Labor, Washington, D. C.*

Clear, detailed and highly readable statements of organized labor's wage policy and the facts underlying it. They are put out as the first two publications in the A. F. of L. Research Series.

SUPPLEMENTAL BONUSES FOR WAGE EARNERS, SUPERVISORS AND EXECUTIVES. *National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., 247 Park Avenue, New York. Price $1.00.*

A concise review of the experience of industrial establishments with the operation of supplemental bonus plans, including a description of various types of plans, and discussion of the reasons for their introduction and the results so far achieved.

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Learning from Six to Sixty

By E. L. THORNDIKE

IF a given amount of schooling, say ten thousand hours, is to be given, when shall it be given? What are the advantages of concentrating it in the years from six to sixteen, as is now done? What might be gained from delaying some of it to adult years? If it is possible and desirable to increase schooling by another thousand hours, shall this be put as an addition of five hours a day for five days a week for forty weeks at age sixteen?

Let us first set in order the main facts in favor of concentration of schooling in early years. A human mind develops in part by inner growth, getting and improving certain mental powers as a child gets his teeth and stature and strength. This process of development by inner forces is, in most respects, completed by twenty or earlier. If outside forces, such as schools, are to accelerate, check, redirect, or otherwise alter it, they must in the main act during the years before twenty.

A human being will learn in early years. If the ideas then absorbed are wrong, they must be eradicated. If the habits then formed are harmful, they must be broken. Unlearning errors is a most wasteful form of learning. If schools act on these early years, they have the possibility of forestalling much practice in error.

The appeals of sex, power, display, and other natural appetites are so strong that abstract and idealistic interests need reinforcement to hold their own against them. The interests in play which characterize childhood are not so antagonistic to these abstract and idealistic interests and occupations, and may even be used by schools to build them up.

The child, having been dependent upon the adult for food, shelter, general care, and information, is more obedient, acquiescent, and teachable (in the sense of modifiable toward what adults wish him to be) than he will be later. This may not be an argument for concentrating schooling in early years if the reader sets a low value on docility and conformity, and a high value on self-determination, self-expression, and self-government.

We can learn nearly as well when young as when older, but our value as workers at home or elsewhere is far less. So it is wise to go to school when the money value of our time is low.

Other things being equal, the earlier a thing is learned the longer, and so the greater, the use which can be made of it. If it is an advantage to be able to read, it is better to be able to read from eight to eighty than from twenty-eight to eighty.

The last half-dozen paragraphs about growth, habit formation, protection of abstract and idealistic interests, teachableness, the small economic value of child labor, and the longer service of early acquisitions, state facts which are demonstrated or demonstrable and must be reckoned with by any scheme for the placement of schooling in relation to age. We may now consider certain facts which are less certain, or, if certain for the world, need not be so for some conceivable set of people and customs.

The pleasures of learning things together in a social group are, or may be made, very desirable to children. They are, or may be, acceptable as a form of gregarious play. The pleasures which adults would derive from a similar activity are less. A greater happiness of a greater number is gained by going to school in childhood and staying at home or at work in adult years.

IF children are not in school for the twenty-five hours a week, they will be at work for hire under control of employers or at work or play under home control. It is less safe to trust employers with children than with adults. The latter can protect themselves better against misuse. So it is better to be out of the control of an employer when young than for an equal time when adult. It is similarly less safe to trust adults with children than with other adults. The rich may spoil them by over-indulgence, and the poor may spoil them by overwork. The state, which has a certain quantum of protection to afford, uses it most wisely in protecting the young by schools.

Schooling in early years is usually democratic and non-sectarian and impartial. Children of all races, economic levels, creeds, and traditions live and learn together. If part of it were spread along through adult years, that part would tend to be organized for specialized groups with more or less invidious distinctions.

The strength of arguments derived from these facts and possibilities varies with the earliness of the time of education. They weaken as we pass from the age of five to fifteen, eighteen, twenty-one, twenty-four. . . .

It is certainly desirable for the world to remove impediments that check desirable growth in body and mind and to provide such environments as will stimulate it. But it is doubtful whether, from fourteen to twenty, schooling as such is better than work as such, as a stimulus and directive agent for the inner

For the use of this concluding section of Professor Thorndike's forthcoming book, Adult Education, The Survey is indebted to the courtesy of the Macmillan Company, publishers. Some of the exciting experimental evidence that grown-ups can learn as well as children, presented in this same volume, which is sponsored by the American Association for Adult Education, appeared in The Survey of April 1, page 35.

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growth of the great majority. We know very little about what is good or bad for the process of inner mental development, and almost nothing about the effect upon it of schooling or work of any sort. *A priori,* the psychologist would suppose that some assumption of power and responsibility was a very valuable stimulus in these years. Self-support, in whole or in part, seems as desirable then as being loved and cared for is in infancy. Sharing in adult enterprises also seems likely to develop a person in his 'teens.

We can, of course, devise forms of schooling which bid fair to be much better for inner growth than the average forms of labor open to boys and girls in their 'teens. But we could also devise forms of labor which would be so. It is significant that the changes made in schools to improve them from this point of view often seek to duplicate the "real world" in general in the school. Why should the chief activity of the real world be so rigorously excluded? The history of schooling does not warrant a bigoted optimism concerning schools as benefactors to inner growth. They have indeed been chief sinners. According to the best present theory, the silent, motionless, memorizing elementary school, which was in vogue until about a generation ago, repressed and thwarted and deformed mental growth.

Leaving general and *a priori* considerations and turning to detailed observations of fact, we find the well-known work of Woolley with Cincinnati children. The children who stayed in school from fourteen to sixteen or eighteen were superior at sixteen and at eighteen to those who worked from fourteen to sixteen or eighteen. They were superior at fourteen, before the difference between school and work acted. They increased their advantage from fourteen on in some respects and lost ground relatively in others. It is difficult, if not impossible, to differentiate the action of schooling after fourteen, *per se,* from the superior nature and home nurture which accompany it. It is also difficult, if not impossible, to differentiate specific school learning from a subtler general stimulation and guidance of inner growth.

On the whole it seems that attention and money spent to provide proper food, sleep, freedom from serious illnesses, dental care, appliances to correct for sense defects, ultra-violet radiation on the body, good companions, and good books will produce better returns in respect of the inner development of both body and mind, than equal amounts spent in any other ways that we now know about.

A DELAY in the age of schooling, all else remaining the same, will result in the acquisition, up to the time of the completion of schooling, of more of the ideas and habits of the groups (real or ideal) among whom the individual lives (in reality or in thought), and fewer of the ideas and habits of the school. The chief differences will be in formal matters like pronunciation and grammar, where the school systematically corrects common practice, and in factual matters, where the school replaces superstition and fantasies of various sorts by facts of science and history. Other things being equal, making these corrections and replacements early rather than late is a real advantage, diminishing practice in error. We may think of schooling as doing three things. The first is speeding up learning which life, apart from school, would eventually provide for (such as knowledge of common measures in arithmetic: inches, feet, yards, etc.). The second is the causing of certain learning which life, apart from school, would usually neither help nor hinder (such as knowledge of how to read Latin, or to solve quadratic equations). The third is causing certain learning which is often opposed by life apart from the school (such as that ghosts are not real, or that cultivated people do not say "he don't").

Early schooling tends to be wasteful in the first two lines of effort by teaching things too long before they are needed, and things that never will be needed. But it clearly has advantages in the third. How important these advantages are relative to others depends upon what the content of this third field is in any day and generation.

THE argument from the desirability of using childhood for innocent pleasure loses strength after age twelve, and loses strength very rapidly after fourteen or fifteen. A very large percentage of children then prefer to work eight hours a day rather than to go to school for five. Schooling does not appeal to them as a vital or engaging occupation. They want things which money will buy, and the powers which skill in shop or trade or office gives.

The arguments for the general protection of children from misuse by employers or by parents also loses strength as we pass into the 'teens. Boys and girls of fifteen are more like adults than they are like children of ten in size, strength, intelligence, self-assertion, and desire for mastery. Doubtless there are individual cases that need protection, but it seems undesirable that these should be given much weight in deciding a general policy. Moreover, many of these boys and girls of fourteen and fifteen would rather do the work of farm or factory than the work of school. The teachers may be far gentler than the employers, but still be less tolerable to dull pupils who are kept at lessons for which they have little ability and less liking.

If we suppose that an eleventh and twelfth thousand hours are to be made available, these arguments for the desirability of concentrating such additions in early years, as by extending the age of compulsory attendance to seventeen or eighteen, become more questionable still.

Let us now turn to the chief facts in favor of allotting a much larger fraction of schooling to adult years than present or past practice has done. They can be presented very briefly.

First, a better selection of persons to be taught could be made. The abilities and interests of individuals can be better known with each year of their growth and experience.

Second, a better selection of the content of instruction could be made, both for persons in their general capacity of individuals, neighbors, and citizens and for their special duties and privileges as producers and enjoyers. In the early years, many features of history and the social sciences cannot be properly apprehended because the learners lack direct experience of certain facts of life. Vocational education of all sorts in early years is likely to be wide of the mark because the individual often does not know just what he wishes to do, or is fit to do, or can, under existing conditions, earn a living by doing.

Third, a better arrangement and sequence of learning can be provided. The Dewey doctrine of "first the need, then the knowledge or technique to satisfy the need," can be applied in as thorough-going a way as is desired. The young man who is working in advertising can study salesmanship or psychology. The young woman about to be married can study domestic science. The worker who becomes interested in writing can study English composition.

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Fourth, a loss of abilities by forgetting or of time by relearning can be prevented. Children now learn about voting in civics in grade seven or eight, seven years before they can vote. They learn the arithmetic of notes years before they will probably have any occasion to borrow or lend money on a note. Certain facts of history and geography they learn only to have entirely forgotten them when the occasion to use them arrives. Other things being equal, the best time to learn anything is just before you have to use it.

Fifth, the lag of schooling behind science and technology can be lessened. When knowledge is advancing as rapidly as it is now, too much of what we learn from ten to twenty tends to be out of date when we are forty. When civilization was more stable and the arts and sciences progressed slowly, it was in general satisfactory for one generation to use during life what it learned in its 'teens. A man of sixty doing only that now would be in many respects a nuisance and a danger. . . .

SIXTH, there is a real danger that, in our zeal to give young people the blessings of more abundant schooling, we may be depriving many of them of the satisfaction and instruction which comes from doing something well, measuring up to standard in some respect, accomplishing something in such a way as to earn their own self-respect. Unless the character of schooling is changed in fundamental ways, the fate of from a quarter to a third of the boys and girls of fifteen and sixteen and seventeen, if these are all retained in school, will be one of these: They will be held back in classes and slowly gain mastery of rudiments of little use to them, such as are now taught commonly in grades seven and eight. They then learn to hate learning. Or they will be forced to try to learn things which they simply cannot learn, such as algebra or Latin or economics. They then learn to fail and to expect to fail. Or they will be more humanely switched off into trade schools, where they will lead happier and more useful lives, but perhaps not so happy or useful ones as they would lead if they were engaged outright in productive labor. If they were out of school for one or two of these years, they might be glad to come back to school again five or ten years later to learn something which they really needed for labor or leisure, and might be substantially bettered.

These facts in favor of delayed schooling do not make so impressive a showing or so emotional an appeal as those in favor of early schooling; and most thinkers, after surveying them, will probably still favor concentration in early years even up to about ten thousand hours or to age sixteen. The facts should, however, cure us of considering early learning as a law of nature, or as invariably superior, and of treating learning by adults as something irregular, remedial, casual, and trivial. Furthermore, if a community becomes rich enough to afford eleven thousand or twelve thousand or thirteen thousand hours of schooling for all, it becomes increasingly doubtful whether years should be added on to seventeen, to eighteen, to nineteen, rather than inserted at twenty, or twenty-five, or thirty.

The placement of schooling cannot be considered properly save in relation to two still broader matters of community arrangements. A scheme of schooling should harmonize with a scheme of productive labor (including management), a scheme of recreation, and a scheme of what is called in family budgets the "higher life." A scheme of schooling should also arrange for the distribution of schooling quantitatively and qualitatively, deciding not only how much schooling there shall be and what it shall be, but how it shall be divided amongst the population, who shall be encouraged to go to school for eight years, and who for eighteen, who of the latter shall study medicine, and who shall study law, and the like. . . .

Our theories about schooling, recreation, and the higher life are all somewhat blinded by an unscientific expectation that somebody will grow wheat and bake bread and make shoes and build railroads and manage factories by some such necessary order of nature as makes the sun shine and the rain fall. This blindness is often accompanied by a certain condescension, or even scorn, toward productive labor, which is perhaps a relic of the long centuries of idealization of the leisure class. There is a very real danger that schooling may unfit a community to produce by itself its own necessities, and lead it to depend on industrial mercenaries imported to do all the dirty work.

As a psychologist, considering the intricate hierarchies of customs and traditions and checks and balances by which the instinctive tendencies of man are directed into the operations of modern industry and trade, the writer wonders that the whole apparatus does not crack with the strains to which it is subjected or explode from the passions which it harbors in its vitals. He feels most devout thanks for his daily bread. So he looks with favor on a mixture of schooling and productive labor, and is unwilling to assume that the latter is a curse to be postponed as long as possible. He sees hope in adult schooling as a means of social health, and is ready to exchange early schooling for it nearly at par.

The present quantitative distribution of schooling in our best communities is almost entirely a matter of public indiscriminate compulsion for certain early years and of entirely private volition thereafter. This seems improbable. Public welfare depends as truly on who goes to school after fifteen as on how many go to school till fifteen. The continued schooling of some individuals is so useful to the nation that it should be assured. Adult schooling is a promising means for gaining flexibility in caring for such individuals. The facts of adult ability to learn should caution us against attaching too much weight to youth in the laws and customs which decide who shall be forced or encouraged to go to school.

18,000 Teachers at Boston

By W. CARSON RYAN

TWO topics emerged at the Boston meeting of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association. One had to do with the ancient controversy of "nature versus nurture;" the other with the task of the American public high school.

The significance of the renewal of the nature-nurture discussion lay in the brand-new evidence presented in the yearbooks of the National Society for the Study of Education. Constancy of the intelligence-test score has been one of the moot points in measurement. The Chicago and Stanford studies, made public at the Boston meeting as part of an array of "unambiguous" evidence on the relative influence of nature and nurture, clearly tended to show that the intelligence quotient is affected by environment. Professor Frank N. Freeman, of the University of Chicago, told of testing a group of children before placement and then retesting them after several years of residence in a foster home. (See The Survey, February 15, 1928, page 636.) A

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comparison of their ratings on the two tests gave evidence of a "significant improvement in intelligence"—at least as measured by intelligence test scores. More than that:

A study of certain subjects showed that the children in the better foster homes gained considerably more than did those in the poorer homes. Furthermore, the children who were tested and adopted at an early age gained more than those adopted at a later age.

Even more definite conclusions that an improvement in environment produces a gain in intelligence were presented by Barbara Burks Ramsperger's report of the Stanford studies. Mrs. Ramsperger finds that home environment contributes about 17 per cent of the variance in I.Q., while parental intelligence alone accounts for about 33 per cent, and the total contribution of heredity (i.e., of "innate and heritable factors") is probably not far from 75 or 80 per cent. She finds that the maximal contribution of the best home environment to intelligence is apparently about 20 I.Q. points, or less, and that conversely the least cultured, least stimulating kind of American home environment may depress the I.Q. as much as 20 I.Q. points. Mrs. Ramsperger is careful to say that situations as extreme as these probably occur only once or twice in a thousand times in American communities, but the evidence in her material and in most of that presented at Boston was so clearly on the side of environment that Dr. William C. Bagley, always eager for a chance to champion the "environmentalists" against the "hereditarians," had a field day.

IT is only fair to say that the chief workers in measurement have always been cautious on this and similar points, and were not greatly disturbed at the National Society studies. Indeed, in a meeting of the Educational Research Association which followed a few days later, Professor E. L. Thorndike, in a carefully prepared paper on recent developments in measurement, concluded that the testing program seemed to be in a "very healthy condition."

Secondary education had been scheduled as the central theme of the meeting, and President J. M. Gwinn had arranged his main programs and group sessions largely around the public high school. This was particularly effective, as it turned out, because of the excellent assembling work that has been done by the various committees under the commission on the curriculum of the Department of Superintendence. The 1927 yearbook of the department has been on the junior high school; the 1928 yearbook, about which the discussions mainly revolved, was given over to the high-school curriculum, and it is doubtful if as much useful information about American secondary education has ever been gathered together in one place.

At the very first main session, President Lowell of Harvard opened up with his paper questioning the cost of public education and suggesting that, just as the problem of the present generation had been to make universal education effective, "that of the next will be to make it equally good and less expensive." Rightly or wrongly, his words were construed as an attack on public education, and the more immediate questions that President Lowell had raised —the lateness with which American secondary schools finish the work they do; the relation of present high-school work to our delayed secondary education in college; and the problem of selectivity in secondary education—these were largely overlooked.

In other meetings speakers attempted to suggest better working arrangements between the public high schools and the college, most of them emphasizing the peculiarly American philosophy of secondary education as enunciated, for example, by L. Thomas Hopkins, of the University of Colorado, that "schools which are operating at public expense are responsible for the development of all the pupils to the limit of their abilities rather than the few who are academically minded to the neglect of the others." Professor Beatley of Harvard pictured the high school as at present the victim of a "battle of the specialists," and several speakers took up the note of Edith Everett, of Philadelphia, who in presenting the point of view of the visiting teacher for what is said to have been the first time at a national principals' meeting, showed how these workers help boys and girls to "grow up emotionally," so that they may develop the well-integrated personality which alone can equip them to get along in a rapidly changing civilization. The various forms of the junior college as they are developing, particularly in the West, as an extension of public secondary education, also were discussed.

Returning to the school and college theme of the earlier sessions, President Angell of Yale attempted at one of the closing meetings to reconcile and interpret the developments in higher education and public high-school expansion in America. He showed that two-thirds of the students in higher institutions are still in privately supported institutions, whereas in secondary education more than 90 per cent of the enrollment is in the public high school. He described the vast influx of students at higher institutions, and gave it as his view that the peak had not yet been reached. He urged cooperation between schools and colleges to discourage from college attendance students who have no serious purpose in going, even if reasonably well prepared, insisting that at present many college and university students go "with no sense of privilege about it and no sense of obligation."

Like all Department of Superintendence meetings of recent years, the Boston meeting was necessarily large and complicated. Other departments, associations, and groups meeting with the superintendents frequently brought it about that from thirty to forty sessions would be going on at the same time. Numbers doubtless mean little under such circumstances, but there were main meetings of five and six thousand school people, largely administrators, and the total attendance probably amounted to about eighteen thousand.

Usually one of the items the newspapers feature at a Department of Superintendence meeting is the contest, real or imaginary, over the presidency. This time there was no contest. Superintendent of Schools F. D. Boynton, of Ithaca, New York, who has in previous years been noted for his attacks on certain features of college admissions, was elected president without opposition.

Teachers and Parents

By NELLIE M. SEEDS

PROGRESSIVE education has established itself as a legitimate and necessary constituent of the whole education movement. No one could doubt this who witnessed the eighth annual Progressive Education Conference in New York last month. Consisting not only of teachers, but also of parents, friends, and mere well-wishers, the large group in attendance was not too dignified to be human, not too far

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past the first flush of youth to be called young, not too sure of itself to be dogmatic, still eager, searching for a truth not yet become conventional, and a procedure of attaining it still in the making.

The secret is a simple one. Teachers and parents alike have become students in their endeavor to discover and formulate a method of educating children as one cultivates a plant, not seeking to produce a rose from a wayside violet, but providing sunshine, fresh air, freedom from repression and worn-out convention, the opportunity with a congenial environment and the necessary tools, to develop every potentiality that lies within.

THE welcoming address of Associate Superintendent John E. Wade, of the Department of Education of New York City, was a satisfying answer to the many who have feared that the new movement was an attack upon the public school system. Much of the advancement and many of the innovations in the public school system were due, he said, to the progressive movement. "We need you," he said, "in the vanguard, to experiment for us."

America's foremost progressive educator, Professor John Dewey, of Columbia University—whose reputation, be it said, is perhaps even greater in farthest China and Russia than in the United States—gave the opening address on Progressive Education and the Science of Education. "Activity," he said, "is the stimulus center about which learning gathers." Since a progressive school is primarily concerned with growth, he further explained, our primary duty is to furnish the children with source material and let them work out relationships for themselves.

Dr. Adolf Meyer, of Johns Hopkins University, discussed the difficult question of the proper relationship between Freedom and Discipline. He gladdened the hearts of the most free among progressive educators by his categorical condemnation of punishment as an effective tool. "Punishment is an anachronistic residuum. Discipline does not connote punishment," he said, and stressed the almost universal misinterpretation of the word discipline, insisting that it owes its origin to the word disciple, or follower of a teacher or idea.

Professor Patty Smith Hill, of Teachers' College, Columbia University, gave her reasons for feeling that parents, or home teachers, should be and are more effective in the training of children than school teachers. "The home," she said, "is a concrete situation of daily living. The main object is living. Instruction is a by-product." Parents, further, are more permanent than are school teachers. The intimacy of a child with his parent gives him another advantage, she explained, and the fact that a child gets at what the parent really is, makes him more responsive. Although her argument that parents have more leisure to give children than have teachers, was greeted with a murmur which indicated that the audience was at least not wholeheartedly in agreement upon this point, her main contention was well maintained.

One session exemplified that rarest of all human qualities, practicing what one preaches; it was a concrete illustration of the use of source material. The class-room teacher, not the theorist, stood on the platform, and with a colorful and impressive array of maps and charts illustrated and explained her class-room technique, just as if giving a lesson to the assembled audience. Lucy Sprague Mitchell of the Bureau of Educational Experiments, New York City, refreshingly explained how to make young geographers, instead of teaching geography, by her use of pilot maps and of the actual physical and topographical environment. Jessie Stanton, of the City and Country School, guided us skillfully through a miniature New York constructed of blocks and dolls, and piloted and equipped by six-year-olds, who learned in the course of their construction that if the dolls sit all day in church they'll starve, that stores must be built to supply food, and that tenants can be evicted "if they fight too much." Avah Hughes, of the Lincoln School, sketched in detail the methods by which her seven-year-olds discover how the city gets its bread; while Hannah Falk, of the Walden School, illustrated the research work of her ten-year-olds in the museum.

Ellen W. Steele, of Rosemary Junior School, at Greenwich, Connecticut, in explaining how her twelve-year-olds investigate the textile industry, presented what was to me the most challenging question of the conference. Progressive education has not yet solved satisfactorily the application of its methods to adolescent and post-adolescent children. At the Locarno Progressive Education Conference in Switzerland last summer, the illustrative material was almost entirely drawn from instruction given to children under twelve years old. In the United States, as abroad, the movement among the younger children has far outdistanced the progress among older groups. Miss Steele explained the initial difficulty. "My twelve-year-olds," she explained, "are mature adults one day, and six-year-olds the next. I must be prepared at a moment's notice to adapt our activities to their mood."

The fourth session on Foreign Education gave us a specific and encouraging picture of the onward march of progressive methods abroad. Elisabeth Rotten gave an outline of the advance movement in German education. Beatrice Ensor, of the New Education Fellowship, of London, was also present.

The conference as a whole was highly significant. Three general conclusions can be drawn with a reasonable amount of fairness. To me, they best summarize this significance:

1. Progressive education has become respectable. No movement backed by the Metropolitan Museum of Art and holding its sessions in the Commodore Hotel can longer be feared as a bogy which will disrupt the home, the school and the community.
2. Its methods are not yet sufficiently formulated into uniformity to constitute crystallization. It is still open-minded, eager to learn—a healthy, youthful, growing organism.
3. As long as it can avoid crystallization into a system, it can exercise an incalculable influence upon education in its biggest and broadest sense.

Its widespread success among children under twelve is highly gratifying. Its gradual percolation into the colleges and universities is encouraging. The challenge which lies before it, is so to adapt its methods to adolescence and youth as to enable them to make a psychological transference from the school or class-room project, to the realities of life as they exist in the outside world. Artificially devised schemes will satisfy the pre-adolescents. But older children require units of activity that constitute an essential part of their lives. Once having learned to assume a real responsibility in the school or college, they can visualize responsibility to a larger social unit, and when they leave it, analyze society as such, and reinterpret their responsibility to it—socially in the home, politically in the state, industrially in doing their part to reorganize society in terms of productive units.

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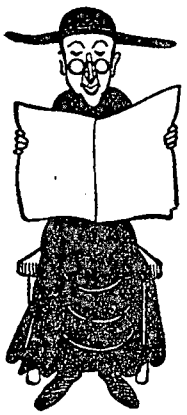
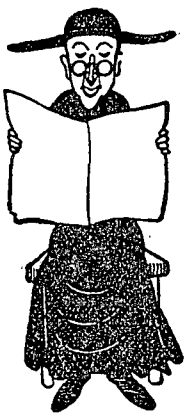


Books in Our Alcove

Drawn by Norman Tealby for The Three-Cornered Hat—

—by Don Pedro Antonio De Alarcón. Simon & Schuster.



Casting out Fear

UNDERSTANDING HUMAN NATURE, *by Alfred Adler. Translated by Walter Beran Wolfe. 1927. Greenberg. 286 pp. Price $3.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

MAN is born with fear in his heart. Very young the child realizes that it is inadequately equipped for life and entirely dependent on its family. At the same time it finds out that the grown-ups are far better off. They can reach up into heights that seem immense to the infant; they can pick it up and put it down wherever they please. This feeling of weakness and helplessness is overstressed in children born with organ inferiorities, in those who live under bad economic or social circumstances, and in girls—who still occupy an inferior place in our masculine civilization.

"The soul under pressure of the feeling of inferiority attempts with all its might to become master over this inferiority complex." It tries to compensate for it by striving for power, which Alfred Adler considers "the most prominent evil of our civilization."

Therefore education—as well as therapy for adults—has two supreme tasks. The first is to treat children as equals and friends, so that their natural feeling of inferiority may not be unduly exaggerated; to teach them courage and an adequate technique of life. The other task is to develop and strengthen their social feeling, so that in the conflict arising between asserting themselves and being a fellow man, they compromise.

Out of the inherited potentialities of the child's organism and the influences of early childhood, the formation of a life goal results. This is accomplished at the age of three or four years. If we desire to understand human beings we must first discover that goal, which we shall often find tucked away securely in the unconscious. What we call character is the behavior pattern an individual has worked out to reach his goal, which is usually one of superiority, power and conquest.

Some people find that the best way to reach their goal is aggressiveness. They are, for instance, jealous—in order to force their wives, parents, or others, to behave or not to behave in a certain way. Others have recourse to non-aggressiveness, as, for instance, to anxiety, which may be used to evade contacts, or to avoid all difficulties in life by simply not undertaking to cope with them. Faint-heartedness may serve with others the same purpose. Those who adopt it feel every task too difficult, see in each issue a defeat.

Life presents three main problems: social adjustment, work and profession, love and marriage. The difficulty lies in solving these problems in a way satisfactory to society as well as to the individual; or to bridge the gulf between overstriving for personal power, and adjustment to the social order. The individual who succeeds in reconciling these contradictions will be useful and happy. If he fails to make the adjustment he will try to express himself apart from society. He will achieve in a destructive way—as invalid or criminal—the superiority he has failed otherwise to attain. Instead of moving with society he will strive against it.

Adler demands that the knowledge of human nature be made available to all, not reserved to a few scientists. For only by understanding can we live on satisfactory terms with ourselves, our community and our world.

MARGARETE SIMPSON

The Normal Woman

MOTHERHOOD AND ITS ENEMIES, *by Charlotte Haldane. Doubleday, Doran and Company, Inc. $2.00.*

THE most deadly modern weapon is the taunt of abnormality. In the past children who did not conform to their particular teacher's preconceptions as to what children should be, were at the worst, damned as bad or incorrigible. Today they are pityingly called abnormal. In the past an adversary's arguments were frequently discussed on their merits. Today it is sufficient to call him undersexed.

Mrs. Haldane seizes this weapon firmly in her hands, and belabors the air. That slow progression by which women won the legal right to be called human beings instead of chattels, a voice in the making of the laws under which they and their children live, and, finally, the opportunity to choose their occupations as freely as man, and so to be economically independent, this whole so-called emancipation of women is, she charges, the work of abnormal members of the sex, and is inimical to the normal woman.

The normal woman, according to her definition, is the child-bearing woman. Closely allied to her biologically, but separated by the gulf of their divergent social interests, is the originally normal woman doomed to permanent virginity. Still further separated from her are the amateur and professional prostitutes; and at the opposite pole are the subnormal and intersexual women. In fact she observes that "abnormality is prevalent among women." If this were true we should perhaps revise our terms and look upon the child-bearing woman as a biological monster; but fortunately Mrs. Haldane offers no proof of this contention. She does not demonstrate that the interests of the non child-bearing women are antagnostic to the child-bearing. And she fails to explain the fact that many of the women who have been foremost in the various skirmishes for women's rights, have competently demonstrated their normality (supposing we accept her definition of the term), by producing children.

It is true that many of the earlier feminists, reacting against the evils of what they were fond of calling a man-made world, reacted with equal violence against man himself, and barred themselves from many natural joys and

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compensations by vowing to live without him. It is also true that the dilemma presented by the choice between career and married life was for a time a very real one; even though by career, women as a rule meant no more than the opportunity to be actively and intelligently occupied. (I think it doubtful whether the various abnormalities entailed by celibacy, are greater or more to be deplored than those entailed by lack of occupation. Men suddenly deprived of occupation are apt to decay and die, even though they are still in the enjoyment of married bliss.) But women today have largely ceased to confuse man with certain injustices of his social system. They are as determined to have husbands and children in addition to their jobs, as their aunts and great-aunts were to prove that they could live happily unwed. Are we to conclude that the working women of one generation were biologically abnormal and those of another normal; or that Mrs. Haldane has exaggerated one factor and neglected others?

The modern suspicion that sexual endowment differs radically in human beings, is immensely interesting. Goldschmidt, Mrs. Haldane notes, found ten variants of sexual endowment among his moths. The rather likely supposition that there are as many or more among human beings, offers much food for thought; but one of the first conclusions to be drawn from it is that we should exercise caution in defining the normal. Mrs. Haldane's confident dogmatism is confusing. Are we to grant that woman normality who gives birth to three children, and then devotes some time to other occupations? Or must she bear children all her life to be so-called? Can we concede normality to the man whose meager sexual desires can be satisfied with one woman? Obviously the subject requires further elucidation before we snatch away from woman her legal status, her vote, or even her job, in the belief that only abnormal women desire those appurtenances.

ALICE BEAL PARSONS

Can Communities Be "Organized"

CASE STUDIES IN COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION, *by Walter W. Pettit. (The Social Workers' Library). Century. 345 pp. Price $2.25 postpaid of The Survey.*

THERE is a fundamental difference between community organization and community organizations. This book deals chiefly with the latter, for if we take the author's own definition of community organization as given in the preface only one of the five cases is a definite attempt at the integration of the various interests of the community. It consists of five case studies, the first four of which are admirably written.

The first deals with the development of a single church in a small suburb and how with difficulty it got on its feet, but nothing is said of its relation to the local grange, which was able to erect a new ten thousand dollar hall. The second concerns a wealthy suburban village which attempts to play Lady Bountiful to the neighboring Italian village, many of whose people are employed by the former. The third case is a fine record of an attempt to establish the Home Service work of the Red Cross in a rural county in the Middle West. It shows the antagonism of different communities in the county, which itself was by no means a community, and vividly portrays the need of social work in rural communities—a need which the Red Cross has failed to meet. The fourth is that of a small village dominated by wealthy residents who have already been described by "Richard Morse" in Fear God in Your Own Village. The record is brought up to the close of 1924, and is the nearest to a satisfactory case of community organization of any in the book, but one is left somewhat in a quandary as to how much real community integration has occurred and what its future may be. The last case deals with a school community center in a large, well-to-do section of New York City and seems to be chiefly valuable as an example of how "not to do it." This is the poorest section of the book and consists largely of what "Mrs. Jones said to me, and I said to her." Had this case been given one-third its space and the remainder been given to one or two accounts of more successful school community centers, the readers would not leave the book with a pessimistic attitude toward the results of so much effort.

As an example of the sort of community case studies that are needed by students, this book will fill a very real need; it breaks a new trail. The first four cases are admirably written and held the reader's attention like a novel. As a whole, the cases are studies of group organization rather than community organization. One cannot but raise the question as to just what is the job of a social worker in community organization. Can communities be "organized" until they want to be? In the "Brocton case" Miss Smith rendered a very distinct service, but it will require a different technique from that revealed in the other cases.

Although from the standpoint of community organization these cases hardly point the way, they contain a wealth of material of real value for the training of social executives of all sorts. It is a book which every community worker should read and ponder.

Department of Rural Social Organization, Cornell University DWIGHT SANDERSON

Drawn by Halle Schlesinger, Walden School

Clinical and Abnormal

CLINICAL AND ABNORMAL PSYCHOLOGY, *by J. E. Wallace Wallin. Houghton Mifflin Company. 1927. 649 pp. Price $3.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE title of this book might be misleading to the uninitiate who think of "clinical" as synonymous with "abnormal." By "clinical," Professor Wallin refers, however, to the "case method" of study of the individual by means of psychologic tests, etc., which is nearly what has been called "applied psychology." He gives very compact descriptions of the methods employed for this purpose: laboratory tests, intelligence tests, special examinations for special topics and problems. The "psycho-clinical" tests, their interpretation and applicability, make up the content of Part I of this book. Part II is devoted to Intelligence, including the study of the defective, and somewhat curiously, of the psychotic as well. Part III deals with Motility and Part IV with Emotivity, these two parts constituting about one-quarter of the book.

The book is entirely eclectic in character, written from no special theoretical point of view, and containing a vast

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amount of material bearing on the subjects treated. The "clinical" material is much better than the "abnormal." In fact the presentation of the latter is very disturbingly scattered. For example, dementia praecox is chiefly discussed under "disorders of sensibility" (p. 282 ff), but later also on page 600. Indeed "abnormal" psychology is not presented so well nor so comprehensibly as in current text-books on psychiatry, psychoanalysis, and psycho-pathology (Bleuler, White, Brill, et al). Nor is the bibliography well chosen for this part of the work, being limited almost completely to American authors and a few translations; nor is the choice discriminating. The chief quality of the book is its comprehensiveness, and its virtues and defects are the corollaries of this quality.

New York B. D. LEWIN, M.D.

Mental Diseases—For the Public

THE PSYCHOLOGY OF MENTAL DISORDERS, *by Abraham Myerson, M.D. Macmillan. 135 pp. Price $1.40 postpaid of The Survey.*

THIS little book is unusual; for those engaged in the active care and treatment of the insane have seldom written for the public in any detail; and even educated men and women have had only the vaguest knowledge of what constitutes mental disease. This book is important; for "the mental diseases constitute one of the major problems of society, not only from the standpoint of medicine, but also from that of eugenics, economics, industry, crime, and all kinds of social relations."

Dr. Myerson writes "with some respect for tradition." But he believes that mankind needs most "a definite acquaintance with specific situations." He would "stimulate intelligent, non-professional interest in a serious subject, and thus make it possible for society to grapple more resolutely with the problems of the mental diseases." He writes out of experience, including "a good deal of residence in hospitals for mental diseases and an everyday contact with them in community practice. The chapter on Heredity is the result of a research conducted for the Commonwealth of Massachusetts on the subject of the inheritance of mental diseases and feeblemindedness." The chapter on Crime is the result of "acquaintance with men and women incarcerated in jails and states prisons," while the author was an official examiner for the state in a research in 1927 "to ascertain the mental state of those convicted of crime."

Other subjects treated include fundamental concepts of psychiatry; the major mental diseases, "the main causes" of which include alcohol and kindred drugs and syphilis; the popular fallacies about insanity being caused by overstudy, business reverses, frustrated love, and sex perversions; the different minor mental diseases or psychoneuroses; Freud, and his most important followers who have broken away from his school; and a limited program of mental hygiene.

In his two-page treatment of organic disease of the brain, Dr. Myerson suggests that "a periodic mental and physical examination of statesmen might be more profitable to mankind than all the peace conferences ever held;" for "those behind the scenes of life know that cerebral arterial disease and its results in irritability, fixed ideas and habits, jealousies, forgetfulness, and even grosser mental disturbance, are not at all infrequent among those statesmen whose word and whose act hurl millions of their healthy young compatriots out of their useful and happy settings into the hell of war."

This book ends with the statement that a mental hygiene of value requires something of the old Greek philosophers, "a fair share of the Hebrew prophets, mingled equally with the philosophy of the Stoics and the Epicureans;" also "a generous measure of sound physical hygiene . . . some of the newer psychology of Freud, Jung, and Adler, and . . . the supreme ingredient of common sense."

HAROLD K. ESTABROOK

Boston Ethical Society

Psychology—a Prediction

BEYOND BEHAVIORISM, *by Robert Courtney. Grant Publishing Co. 133 pp. Price $1.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

RARELY in the past year have I had a more delightful hour than the one spent with Robert Courtney's Beyond Behaviorism. It is refreshing in its approach; clear cut and illuminating in its review of the history of psychology; adventurous in its prediction for the future. Mr. Courtney has shown a wide familiarity with the field of psychology, and has synthesized his information into an unusually interesting point of view. He is intelligently critical of the various schools of modern psychology, viewing each with the impartiality of a philosophical mind.

Behaviorism he discusses in some detail, and apparently thinks it more promising as a method of investigation than any other which has yet been developed. He considers it limited in its scope however, since it observes only the physical and chemical activities of the individual, but omits the associative thought processes or consciousness. He thinks that if this third factor in human behavior could be studied by some technique designed to escape the fallacies of the old introspective analysis yet to preserve the accuracy of the behavioristic type of observation, much would be gained.

Oddly enough, in view of the fact that psychology as a discipline has so recently weaned itself from philosophy, Mr. Courtney looks for this new technique in the methods of the oriental philosophies. He thinks the key to the situation may lie in the detached "I" referred to by Buddha in The Only Way. This "I" is to observe not only the physical and chemical activities of its own body, but its own associative thought processes as well. That more is to be learned by an objective study of one's own behavior than by a study of the behavior of others is obvious. Whether or not a really impersonal observation by this detached "I" can ever be accomplished, or even whether or not such an "I" exists at all is, we must recognize, a point under dispute. Nevertheless, the consideration of such an approach to the future study in psychology should serve not only to renew the argument, but to stimulate thinking in this field.

E. LEE VINCENT

Merrill-Palmer School

Freud—Adler—Wexberg

YOUR NERVOUS CHILD, *by Erwin Wexburg. A. & C. Boni. 178 pp. Price $1.75 postpaid of The Survey.*

DR. WEXBERG gives us a very practical treatment of the problem of the adult attitude toward childhood. In the first part he discusses many causes of nervousness and in the latter part gives advice as to the best attitude to adopt toward various nervous manifestations. The average parent will find the book not less interesting because it contains much he already knows, for the attitude of the

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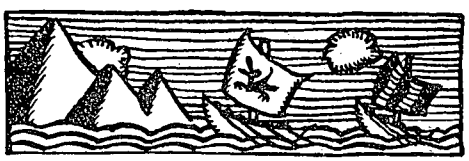
average modern parent is very different from that of her grandmother. The discoveries of Freud have become the basis of the modern attitude toward life in relation to childhood, as in so many other respects, even among people who have never heard of Freud, so that to be a child is no longer regarded somewhat as if it were a fault to be forgiven with difficulty.

Dr. Wexberg's book, the introduction states, is based on the theories of Dr. Adler of Vienna [see The Survey of September 1, 1927] and the pedagogic system which he developed. With the starting point of Freud's earlier researches, Dr. Adler arrived at a theory which Freud felt to be without scientific support and unsound, i. e., that all character development is based upon the feeling of inferiority which, he claims, results from some form or other of physical inferiority, and upon this foundation Adler has developed a system of pedagogy. It is but fair to say that the system is so little dependent on the theory that the unsoundness of the theory casts no discredit on the system. Freud himself has been chiefly concerned with the more basic causes of nervousness, of which the feeling of inferiority is an occasional result.

As a discussion of the causes of nervousness the book is superficial and inadequate. If the author had confined himself to the simple exposition characteristic in general of the book, refraining from the opportunity to make the dogmatic and unsupported statement that the Freudians are wrong on scientific questions which are really beyond the scope of the book, as, for instance, whether infantile masturbation has any relation to adult masturbation, the book would have been more consistent in treatment.

It may be carping to deplore here a slovenliness of style which so often characterizes the writings of medical men—such expressions as "the only child has it worse," "tyrannize his child," "act manly." In spite of its defects, the book has the merit of being simple, practical, and, in the main, sound.

RUTH M. GATES



Drawn by Halle Schlesinger, Walden School

Through Chinese Eyes

JUVENILE COURTS IN THE UNITED STATES, *by Herbert H. Lou. University of North Carolina. 277 pp. Price $3.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

A BOOK by a Chinese on a typical modern American institution like the juvenile court might be taken for a novelty, but the reader will be quickly convinced that Chinese scholarship is hardly to be surpassed as a medium for clear, scientific exposition. We could wish that all judges and probation officers might be compelled to read it. Dr. Lou learned his ample and nearly impeccable English at the National University of Peking, from which he came to this country in 1921 to spend two years at Harvard and four at Columbia. The present work was offered as his doctor's dissertation. He is now occupying a chair in political and social science at the University of Mukden in Manchuria.

The book is an examination of the juvenile court as a movement in all its philosophical, sociological, historic, and legal phases; of the juvenile court as an institution—in its administrative, diagnostic and procedural features; and of specific juvenile courts as exemplars of special methods or policies. Besides the background, it gives the practice, and makes unhesitating recommendations in court and probation methods.

Dr. Lou decides that the primary and definite legal question most at daily issue in juvenile court policy is the power of the court to control the custody of the child. He weighs the rights of the parent against those of the state, and shows the considerations that have rightfully led to the concession that the welfare of the child is the paramount issue and must govern determination of its custody—the common law rights of parents being not inalienable but natural, and subject, consequently, to the ordinary legislative power. He prophesies that the juvenile court of tomorrow "will probably offer an entering wedge for scientific reformation of the whole administration of criminal justice."

The book is real treasure trove mined from the author's indefatigable research, which no one wanting to know can read without a sense of gratitude. Perhaps it was to have been expected of the Oriental mind that one should feel completely orientated after absorption of its product.

CHARLES L. CHUTE

National Probation Association

"Good" Employers

MINIMUM WAGE LEGISLATION IN MASSACHUSETTS. *National Industrial Conference Board. 243 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

FOR the student of minimum wage legislation this book contains an elaborate compilation of Massachusetts statistics in a very useful form. The public, moreover, should be grateful to this organization for collecting the figures in such a form that they can be studied by every one as the first American experience with minimum wage legislation of the kind now possible in this country—the non-mandatory.

Upon reflection after reading, immediately one is struck with the marked contradiction between the two important theses of the author—minimum wage decrees, except in the brush industry, have had no appreciable effect in raising wages of women in these industries, but "good" employers in these same industries have been greatly impeded in their competition with other employers in the same field. It is apparent in view of the small number of women affected plus the low rates set that minimum wage decrees must have influenced wages, if at all, more by example than by direct effect; that is, the opportunity for an apprentice to start in an industry where she is sure of at least a certain wage may have influenced some women. The reason why the decrees have not influenced more women is undoubtedly that remuneration offered to the experienced under the rates is in many cases not so good as can be obtained in other lines or in the same field, quite irrespective of the order of the wage boards.

But if the rates have been raised so little, is it possible this legislation should have had a telling influence on the business prospects of the employers? The author admits that many other factors have entered in during the period in question, such as rising prices and invention of new machinery. But still she insists that this legislation is unfair to the "good" employer, since the law is non-mandatory. Again there seems to be a flaw in her reasoning, as the

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figures the author quotes with respect to compliance with the decrees seem to show that they are followed in the main. If this be true, then most of the results aimed at by the mandatory law are obtained. The author still tries, however, to champion the cause of the oppressed "good" employer. This attitude appears rather inconsistent because one of the theses of the book is that the minimum wage orders have had but little effect on wages.

The answer to the puzzle is that the manufacturers, and especially those not covered by the decrees, fear the potential power in this form of legislation just as they fear the restrictions on hours of labor and other forms of the exercise of the principle of state control. Most manufacturers believe in laissez-faire and think that unregulated and uncontrolled competition is the only way business can be run, and they will use their statistics to prove it in their publications—as is natural.

SUSAN BRANDEIS

From the jacket of Nicaragua and the United States, by Isaac Joslin Cox. The World Peace Foundation, Boston

RUN OF THE SHELVES

A DESCRIPTIVE LIST OF THE NEW BOOKS

Edited by Halle Schaffner

TROUBLES WE DON'T TALK ABOUT, *by J. F. Montague. Lippincott. 248 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

THIS book deals with the health and ills of the intestinal tract, written in non-technical language, in the interest of a public whose casual information on this important subject more often pays the high price of neglect or is bought in bottles at the nearest drug-store.

BORDERLANDS OF ECONOMICS, *by Radhakamal Mukerjee. Milton, Balch. 280 pp. Price $3.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

WHAT Mukerjee has to say could be told in much less space. As the title indicates he skirts about that area in social science known as economics to learn the nature of its relations to the kindred branches. He finds that economics is very much like the family in the city apartment that never gets acquainted with the family across the hall. He not only finds that the psychology of conventional economic reasoning is out of date but that economics has kept its skirts clean from the influence of recent advances in the physical sciences, particularly biology. As a science, it still remains the slave of conceptualism, still juggles with the absolutes and still ignores the variability of human nature. He says that while the "economic man" is long dead most economists refuse to bury him. But Mukerjee himself falls into the same pit by joining McDougall in refusing to bury the "instinct man," also long dead. On the whole it is a fresh view on the subject.

NELS ANDERSON

HYGIENE AND SANITATION, *by Jesse Feiring Williams, M.D. Saunders. 344 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

THIS textbook is adapted to the senior high school or junior college level. The approach is fundamentally that of personal hygiene considered in separate chapters for the various age groups—prenatal, babies and young children, preschool children, school children, the aged, infirm and invalid. There follows a chapter on health care in disease, containing a reprint of a large part of the American Public Health Association report on Communicable Disease Control, issued in 1917, without comment or supplementary notes concerning discoveries since that date. Home and factory sanitation are considered and a brief statement describes governmental public health functions and international health activities. The use of the book will be limited to that of an elementary text and the teacher who finds the selection of facts adapted to his group of students should find this a useful class-room guide to which he can add illustrations, interest and enlivenment.

C. E. TURNER

TOBACCO AND PHYSICAL EFFICIENCY, *by Piere, Schrumpf-Pierron, M.D. Published under the auspices of the Committee to Study the Tobacco Problem by Paul B. Hoeber. 134 pp. Price $1.85 postpaid of The Survey.*

"THE purpose of this work," writes the author, "has been to collect the medical knowledge on record regarding the effect of tobacco upon the organism." He should not have used the word "knowledge," for his collection is made up largely of early writings condemning tobacco and later writings contradicting the earlier. In the final result tobacco is not quite guiltless, though many charges are found not proven. Dr. Pierron has assembled a good deal of evidence that is of doubtful value and has overlooked one or two important pieces of research; but his work will still be valuable, especially to the many reformers who are not so scientific as he. It may help, also, to stimulate research in a subject that cries aloud for investigation; not altogether in vain, for, since this book was published, two new poisons have been added to the list of those found in tobacco—arsenic and methyl alcohol. It is yet too soon to say whether the quantities of either are sufficient to do bodily harm.

J. R. E.

HEART AND ATHLETICS, *by Dr. Felix Deutsch and Dr. Emil Kauf. Mosby Co. 187 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

SOMEBODY should have told the two Austrian doctors who have been investigating the "athletic heart" that this subject has interested a number of investigators in England and America. Their ignorance of the literature is amazing. Their ignorance of statistical method is equally great, if less rare. One feels great sympathy for Dr. Warfield, who has translated the book into excellent English.

J. R. E.

PERSONAL HEALTH, *by Emery R. Hayhurst, M.D. McGraw-Hill. 278 pp. Price $3.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

DR. HAYHURST is widely and favorably known to the public-health profession and this book should add still further to his recognition as a sound and constructive scientist and a progressive sanitarian. He has undertaken the unusual and worthwhile in preparing a book to "serve the busy person in shop or office as a health guide and a medical adviser." He has drawn upon his unexcelled experience and standing in the field of industrial hygiene for innumerable incidents and illustrations which add point and interest to his book, which should be useful to employers, foremen and workers. It deserves to be read. Teachers of adult classes or industrially employed groups should find this a clear, understandable and useful reference or text.

C. E. TURNER

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THE SOCIAL WORK SHOP

Getting Things Done

By ARTHUR DUNHAM

WHAT is "administrative technique" and what does it have to do with an ordinary inoffensive social worker? Professional social work operates primarily through organized groups. The mere existence of an organization implies the necessity of administration, or literally "government," which has been aptly defined as "the means by which people live together." Welfare administration is, therefore, the means by which people work together on a specific job in order to give a particular kind of service. The "administrative technique of the social worker" is in essence the capacity for getting things done—done right and in reasonable time. It is closely akin to personal efficiency, which means nothing more mysterious than achieving the maximum results—giving the maximum amount of service—from the expenditure of a given effort.

Granting that there is such a thing as the administrative technique of the social worker, how may one acquire it? The first step (and the only one we can attempt in this discussion) is to analyze it into its elements. Tentatively, and as a basis for further study, I should like to outline thirteen points which, it seems to me, ought to have a place in the administrative technique of every social worker.

1. JOB ANALYSIS. The social worker needs an elementary technique of job analysis for two purposes: First, to analyze a job which he may be considering; and second, to analyze the job he is actually doing. Such job analysis is neither mysterious nor highly technical. It implies merely a common-sense study of the job, and on the basis of that study writing down the items which will answer these three questions: What are the exact duties of the job? What are the necessary qualifications for the worker? What are the conditions of service, such as salary, hours of work, holidays, vacation, sick leave, and the like? A job analysis is a fundamental sailing chart for any social worker. It is the first step toward laying out an effective individual program of work.

2. ORGANIZING THE JOB. Job analysis breaks up the job into its component parts. The second step is the organization of the parts by some general plan or system. For example, a family case worker may divide up her duties roughly into office work and visiting. She may lay out her weekly pension visits so that she will visit the north end of her territory on Monday, the south on Tuesday, and so on, picking up each day the incidental or consultative visits in the territory. Similarly, she may block out her indoor duties: filling out the day-sheet and other record forms, entering petty cash, reading case records, preparing for dictation, dictating, conferring with the district superintendent, planning field visits, holding office interviews. All this is making a beginning at organizing the job. To be sure, emergencies will rise up and the best-laid plans be knocked into a cocked hat. But most of the job most of the time is not an emergency, and even emergencies can be better fitted into an organized background than into a series of hairbreadth escapes.

3. PLANNING. Planning means "going through a job in imagination before doing it." Probably half our inefficiency is due to bad planning or no planning. Thorough planning of a program at a committee meeting or a conference often means the difference between success and failure. Planned dictation saves stenographic time and produces better letters. Planned visits and interviews conserve the case worker's time and mean better case work. Planning should come into play not only in laying out the social worker's general program on his job, or his program for a month, a week, or a day; it should extend also to the conscious planning of administrative details and routine processes. A planned procedure for keeping statistics and making up the monthly report takes time, but it saves much more time. Incidentally, if you want to get the full benefit of a plan, write it down.

4. BUDGETING TIME. Budgeting time is rather more important than budgeting money. A wasted dollar may possibly be retrieved; a wasted hour cannot. Learn to have a schedule and to dispatch work in accordance with it. A schedule should have some relation to reality. Time should be allotted to a task on the basis of the time actually required for similar tasks in the past. An accurate sense of what one can do in a given time is one of the most valuable possessions a worker can have. For those who are interested in this matter of budgeting time and planning, I would recommend two pieces of reading. One is Arnold Bennett's little book, How to Live on Twenty-Four Hours a Day; the other is the chapter on Planning the Day's Work in E. B. Gowin's volume, Developing Executive Ability.

5. DESK TECHNIQUE. A technique for using a piece of furniture? If you doubt the need of it, I invite you to observe for two hours the desk work in almost any social agency. Notice the cavernous roll-top relics, with their pigeon-holes affectionately clamoring to hold papers, pencils—"just anything." See how their affection is rewarded! Observe the stacks of letters, papers, case records—and those other papers which aren't even stacked, but are strewn around like the cakes of ice on which the famed Eliza fled to freedom. Note the perspiring executive and his flustered helpers wildly gathering the papers for the board meeting, already five minutes overdue. Observe the harassed district superintendent, interrupted in her dictation to answer the telephone; turning from it to answer a student's question and to dispense petty cash to a visitor—four o'clock in the afternoon, dictation to finish, three visits to be made, and that infernal monthly report due tomorrow morning—driven from morning till night. . . . Finally, if you have any lingering doubts, open the deep drawer of that desk and look at the contents!

A desk is a place in which not to put most things. It is a table to work on and a place for keeping a few necessary

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tools and supplies, and work which is actually in progress, and constantly used reference material. Desk technique implies the organization of the desk and the establishment of a definite place for work in hand, scratch pad, paper-clips. Furthermore, this involves the establishment of certain routines: the handling of mail and other incoming material, the signing and dispatching of outgoing mail, a system of reminders of appointments and future duties.

Orderliness is about as important a characteristic of a desk as personal cleanliness of an individual. Keeping things moving—getting the job finished, then putting it out of mind and off the desk—is another keynote. Finally, there is the fundamental principle of the clear desk, what Walter Lippmann describes as "the perfectly sound ideal of an executive who sits before a flat-topped desk, one sheet of typewritten paper before him, and decides on matters of policy presented in a form ready for his rejection or approval."

One of the best things that has been written on social-work desk technique is How One Man Secures Personal Efficiency in Work, by Elwood Street, in The American Stationer and Office Manager for February, 1928.

6. ADMINISTRATIVE RELATIONSHIPS. These are chiefly of five kinds: to superiors, colleagues, subordinates, clients, outsiders. Accountability is the characteristic of the relationship to one's superior, whether department head, chief executive, or board of directors. We want no militarization of social work, but we do need clear lines of organization and authority, and clean-cut recognition of responsibilities. Space forbids detailed discussion of these relationships. One's whole philosophy, attitude, and personality enter into this "knack of getting along with people." Reverence for personality, a vigorous sense of fair play, the spirit of team work, and a bit of tact all enter in.

7. DICTATING. Skill in dictating, like a taste for olives, has to be acquired through practice. Attention to a few points will help in dictating to a stenographer: adequate preparation beforehand, including the assembling and arranging of papers and if necessary, the outlining of certain material; keeping clear of interruption; enunciating clearly and dictating at an even rate of speed; above all, remembering that the job is a piece of teamwork between dictator and stenographer. Dictating to a machine is somewhat more difficult to learn, but the gain in efficiency is worth the effort.

8. TELEPHONING. Do you still say "Hello" when you answer the telephone? That wasn't excessively bad technique about the time of the Spanish-American War. Of course, modern grown-ups, working in offices, are expected to answer the telephone with the name of their organization or some other identifying phrase instead of a fatuous "Hello" to the world in general. The first pages of most telephone directories contain some excellent hints on telephone technique. Experience suggests others: Cultivate telephone courtesy—don't abuse the right of way and interrupt busy people for long periods at inconvenient times; don't call a person and then keep him waiting; avoid telephone arguments, because you and the other fellow can't see each other; and remember the trite but true exhortation that "the voice with the smile wins." Record the results of important telephone calls. Confirm in writing important agreements made by telephone.

9. CONFERENCE AND INTERVIEW TECHNIQUE. A business friend once told me of the technique he had developed for the daily conference with his chief. "I may have a dozen things to go over with him. I have my papers all together, and sorted out in this Every-Day File with the ten pockets. I get him warmed up on some easy matters that arouse his interest. Then I give him the real things that require important decisions. Then, when he's beginning to get tired of concentrating, I taper off with the routine things—signing checks, O.K.-ing orders, and such. . . . I told him about my system one time. He just laughed. He doesn't realize how good it is!" Here are several of the principles that underlie good administrative conferences: Prepare in advance; know what you want; assemble, classify, and arrange your material; stick to business; when you are through, stop. Important results of conferences or interviews should be recorded, perhaps confirmed. Often the best plan is to dictate the agreement before adjourning.

10. COMMITTEE SERVICE. Committees deserve at least a pamphlet—preferably a book. They are among the most valuable instruments and the most futile time-wasters in the world. Group-thinking is the basis of committee work. A classic description of the process of group-thinking is found in Miss Follett's The New State, especially pages 24-32. Further discussions may be found in some of the publications of The Inquiry, 129 East 52 Street, New York. Every social worker needs to learn to play his part in group thinking, for it is not only an administrative technique—it is one of the fundamental processes of community organization and of democracy itself. Of course, there are other things about committee technique; for example, that a committee needs to define its objectives clearly; that it requires leadership; that a committee job has to be organized and meetings have to be prepared; and that no committee ought to exist longer than it is clearly necessary or important.

11. HANDLING RECORDS. Whether we like records or not (and most of us do not) we shall have to produce them and use them. I suppose the cardinal points are to make the record clear, unambiguous, accurate, complete; to record the kind of data that the best experience in your field indicates needs to be recorded; to handle records carefully always and confidentially when their nature requires it; to keep records up-to-date and accessible; not to become obsessed with records as ends in themselves.

12. HANDLING STATISTICS. The keynote in dealing with statistics, says a skeptical professor friend of mine, is, "Speak gently to the little statistic, and it will answer kindly back." Some of the statistical legerdemain seen in social work is not far from the understanding of the gentleman who remarked that he hoped he would "never get *total,* because more people seem to die from it than from anything else!" I believe that the social worker who has not had an adequate course in statistics had best read carefully some authoritative but simple book on the subject. This, with growing experience, will give him some idea of statistical method. But on difficult problems he will continue to require the services of the statistical specialist.

13. HANDLING MONEY. The fundamental principles of handling money are quite generally known and violated. One might sum them up thus: Budget finances—estimate income and expenses in advance. Spend only under proper authorization. When you pay out cash, get a receipt. Record financial transactions immediately, accurately, clearly, fully. Keep financial records simple and up-to-date.

One caution needs to be added to what has been said about administrative technique. Human kindliness and sympathy are supremely important. They are the spirit of social work. Without them, no technique is worth having.

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Over My Desk

A Monthly Talk with Executives

By ELWOOD STREET
Director, Community Council of St. Louis

Tell Them What Happened

A SURVEY advertiser is highly commended by The Little Schoolmaster in Printers' Ink, February 9. Several months ago The Servants of Relief for Incurable Cancer began their campaign for funds with which to erect Rosary Hill Home at Hawthorne, N. Y., using The Survey as one of its principal media. The fund was raised and the building erected. The additional advertising space was used to make a financial accounting to the public, stating the amount raised ($160,580.96) and the amount disbursed for advertising ($19,615.24), making a return of about 800 per cent on the advertising investment.

"Often, after the public's emotions have been touched and its interest in the cause aroused," writes The Little Schoolmaster, "it hears very little of the ultimate use of its donation. The unsavory odor which has emanated from several charity campaigns because of the small percentages of the amount collected that was really used for the purpose for which it was donated, has caused the public to develop a slight attack of cynicism which may spread to legitimate charity appeals."

Centralized Stenographic Service

A central bureau to take care of stenographic and typing work for all departments under the direction of an experienced supervisor has been established by the New York Tuberculosis and Health Association, Inc., according to Harry Hopkins, director. All operators, stenographers, typists are under the direct supervision of this supervisor. Members of the bureau are not to accept assignments unless given by the supervisor. After taking dictation the operator reports to the supervisor the extent of the work to be done. Dictators are requested, where possible, to make a special effort to dictate in the morning so that the stenographers will be free in the afternoons to handle emergency jobs.

All requests for service are made to the supervisor who sends to the department an operator familiar with the work of the department. When a stenographer has all the work she can handle in a given day, another stenographer is selected to complete the day's requirements for the dictator. If an operator familiar with the department work is absent from the office, another operator is assigned to carry on the day's work. In this way all dictators are supplied with stenographic service and all stenographers are kept busy.

In order to make effective this plan for central stenographic service a very effective manual for the handling of correspondence has been developed. Mr. Hopkins would doubtless be willing to send a copy of Letter of Instruction No. 83 concerned with this Central Stenographic and Typing Bureau and of the Manual of Correspondence, if he were addressed at 244 Madison Avenue, New York City.

Can She Write an Arabic Song for the Xylophone?

You may have a veritable gold mine of latent talent in your staff and office force. So the Wisconsin Anti-Tuberculosis Association discovered, when a member of its stenographic staff understudied one of the dramatic staff and played the part as well as the staff member.

Thereupon the W.A.T.A. sent out a Talent Questionnaire, so Leslie L. Lewis, assistant to the executive secretary, reports. Each member of the staff and office force was asked to bury her bashfulness and state her accomplishments and interests. It was discovered that in addition to two staff artists, there were four other members of the organization who had artistic ability. Now, when a project is undertaken which requires art suggestions, all six are asked to contribute ideas.

Out of 28 staff members and 16 office employes, all but three staff members replied to the Talent Questionnaire. Ten of the staff, it was found, and 12 of the office force are members of churches; 15 of the staff and 7 of the office force belong to clubs or societies, other than medical societies.

Twelve of the staff and 1 office have had teaching experience; 16 staff, 10 office—experience in amateur or professional drama; 15 staff, 8 office, can drive a car; 5 staff, 2 office, speak French; 9 and 5 speak German; 2 and 2 speak Spanish; 1 staff speaks Dutch, 1 Arabic and Turkish; 2 office speak Bohemian, 2 Italian, and 1 Norwegian. Except for one of the staff, all are American born.

Five staff and 5 office play the piano; 1 office, the violin; 2 staff, the mandolin; 1 staff the clarinet, bugle and xylophone; 1 office the ukelele. Ten of the staff and 4 of the office mention ability to write articles; 4 staff and 2 office write parodies; 4 staff have written amateur plays; 3 and 1 write poetry; 3 staff write songs; 1 staff music; 4 staff have written stories.

Informing the Board

An experiment in keeping a board of directors in touch with the work of a social agency at minimum expense on the part of the agency and with the greatest ease on the part of the board members has been tried out recently in the form of a weekly postcard report. On the right of the face of the postcard a space three and a half inches wide, as required by postal regulations, is left for the address. At the left side of the face of the postcard is mimeographed each time a statement of the subscriptions and payments received since the last report and the total standing in subscriptions and payment on pledges as compared with last year. The other side of the card contains brief mimeographed paragraphs written in telegraphic style of the main activities of the last week. All members declare themselves pleased with this easily read postcard bulletin and question asking at meetings is kept down to a minimum because of the bulletin.

A Dollar-a-Day Club

The Associated Charities of Washington, D. C., has formed a Dollar-a-Day Club, made up of a growing number of people each of whom gives a dollar a day, or $365 a year. The advantage of this plan is that the contributor thinks of the small sum, given daily, rather than of the large amount his contribution will come to at the end of a year. Social agencies might well develop this idea on a dollar-a-day basis, or so-much-a-month, or so-much-a-week, or, in the case of a Community Fund, so-much-for-each-organization.

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GOSSIP: of People and Things

Memphis Offers

FOURTEEN years ago the National Conference of Social Work met in Memphis. When it meets there again this year, May 2-9, it will be celebrating a sort of double sabbatical year. The Old Timers' Dinner, being organized by Uncle Alec Johnson, will find enough growth in Memphis social work to justify a full evening of reminiscences. The civic and commercial growth of the city has kept pace. Here are the heights to which Memphis has climbed (we have their own word for it):

a. World's largest inland cotton market.
b. World's largest hardwood center.
c. Largest sweet-feed point in the United States. (That sounds alluring.)
d. South's greatest wholesale drug market. (That will help, after the sweet feed.)
e. Second in the South in steel fabrication.

And that's not half of it.

The largest advance registration of any national conference is reported by Mary Russell, of the local committee. Places have been arranged for 196 meetings, each with a potential attendance of 15 to 1,500. They will not all be held at once. Any social worker hungry for inspiration and concrete help will have no handicap but his own capacity. If he is wise he will study the full menu before the conference starts, and fill his tray with a well-balanced meal. There is nothing quite so annoying as loading up with éclairs at the head of the line, then finding strawberry ice cream at the end.

Then On to Paris!

PRE-CONVENTION TOUR ST-I is the label under which one group of social workers will sail from New York, June 1, to attend the International Conference of Social Work, Paris, July 8-13. This group, happily led by Owen R. Lovejoy, will sail on the S.S. Carinthia and, prior to the conference, will visit many points in Europe on an itinerary arranged by the Franco-Belgique Tours. Other social work tours are being organized and special arrangements can be made by any individual who wants to travel solo. The Survey will gladly put you in touch with reliable travel agencies.

The International Conference of Social Work is the backbone of a group of meetings in Paris in July. Others are International Housing and Town Planning Congress, July 2-8; International Child Welfare Congress, July 5-8. Details of these conferences are contained in a pamphlet which may be had for the asking from the National Conference of Social Work, 277 East Long Street, Columbus, Ohio.

If you are unable to squeeze the budget for a trip to Paris (it can be done from an Atlantic seaboard port for a mere $500 or less), be sure to become a member of the International Conference. For 60 francs (that ought to be about $2.50 if the market doesn't blow up in the meantime) you can get all the reports and the proceedings. Send that $2.50, or the francs if you want to make Howard Knight's life interesting, to National Conference of Social Work, 277 East Long Street, Columbus, Ohio.

From East to West

IF you can't control your travel urge and feel that Paris is a bit too far, California offers you "the World's Largest and Greatest State Conference." (They admit it; but say nothing about the climate.) The California conference, at Yosemite, May 22-26, will be the first regional conference of the Pacific Coast. Caravans of social workers from Washington and Oregon will wend their way South, demonstrating that even an auto-migrant may have a mission. Social Work and Industry is the conference theme, representing a desire, as Father Robert E. Lucey, conference president, states, "to reach down to the roots of things and probe our fundamental problems located somewhere between capital and labor. Sidney Hillman, will brighten the pages of our program. The American Federation of Labor will give us the message of those who toil—or would if they had a job—and personnel directors of big industries will tell us the 'why' of the open shop.

"Springtime in Yosemite is a season of entrancing charm. [Ah, the climate at last!—Ed.] The program has been adjusted to meet our needs—work in the morning—supervised recreation all afternoon—big joyous meetings in the evening. We will have camp-fires and water-falls and everything. There are no jails in Yosemite—every speaker may tell the Truth."

Learning Administration

THIRTY social workers held a five-session dinner on the Administration of Social Agencies at the Pennsylvania Conference on Social Welfare. Frank D. Preston, western representative of the Public Charities Association, leader of the clinic, had obtained in advance from the group the specific problems they wished to have discussed.

"The method of presentation was very simple and informal. The group acted as the board of directors of a social agency, and the institute leader acted as chairman, or president of the board, and stated the problem in general terms as a president might do in an actual board meeting. The group member who had submitted the problem then became for the time the executive of the agency and made further explanations, stated any additional facts, and answered questions."

Methods of job analysis, studies of intake, financial accounting and methods were some of the subjects studied.

Greater Philadelphia in the Making

LOOKING ahead ten years, to the more adequate solution of municipal problems, the second Philadelphia Conference on City Government brought together between two and three hundred engineers, economists, criminologists, research students, physicians, political scientists, club leaders and social workers, in a three-day meeting, March 15-17, at the Bellevue Stratford Hotel. Taxation, crime, public health, the city manager idea, economics in administration, city planning, were discussed.

A definite outline of public improvements for Philadelphia in the decade 1928-1938—plans for bridges, harbor improvements, water supply, sewage disposal, lighting—was presented by a committee of twenty-two engineers under the chairmanship of Kern Dodge.

Coordination in New York

FOURTEEN major projects for the further coordination and improvement of social work in New York City were recently reported on at a meeting of the board of directors of the Welfare Council of New York. These projects include: a plan for a coordinative purchasing service for charitable and welfare agencies; a plan for a central information bureau to make it easier for the general public to go directly to the agencies that can provide the particular kind of help needed; a study of the scope of the work of public and private agencies and of their relationship to each other; a study of the legal aid situation in New York, in cooperation with the Bar Association; a plan for cooperation with the After-Care Department in the New York State Department of Labor so as to provide more adequate help for injured workmen and their families; and a program for providing better social service facilities for Negroes in Harlem.

Help!

IF The Survey were not so much in demand, there would be no occasion for repeated requests for back copies. This time it is March 15 Surveys that are wanted. If you have finished with your copy, you will confer a favor if you return it to The Survey, 112 East Nineteenth Street, New York. The October 15, 1927, issue will also be welcomed.

Miscellaneous

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF SOCIAL WORKERS has at last become self-supporting. Income during 1927 exceeded expenditures by more than $500 on a budget of over $21,000.

THE ROUTZAHN BOOK on social work publicity, planned for publication March 1, is now scheduled for April. The postponement was due to re-indexing, so that the book when published will be as informative as possible. The title is Publicity for Social Work, 425 pages with illus-

(*Continued on page* 138)

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COMMUNICATIONS

Have We Forgotten Pingree?

To the Editor: The Welfare Council of New York City notified nearly a hundred organizations for social service of Governor Smith's request for a survey of unemployment but in their discussion and general program I find not one word about the use of the land "over-capitalized in real estate speculation" which stretches out twenty miles around all our great cities and splotches the country with neglected fields of weeds and scrub brush. This is the land that would be used and could be used by every worker in Adam's trade—to grow enough to keep those whom it now renders disemployed.

Yet it was in the great city of Detroit, following a great depression, that Mayor Pingree devised the famous Potato Patch Plan, which took 60 per cent off the city-poor payroll the first year. This was later known as "The Cultivation of Vacant Lots by the Unemployed," and was unstintedly endorsed after years of trial by the A. I. C. P. Its success made possible our war gardens, which Plant estimated at five million plots.

The objections that have been raised to intensive cultivation on vacant lands are only two. One, that it is a "seasonal employment." If I were not a Christian philosopher, I would characterize that as a wicked lie. Gardening, like road-making, building, lumbering and so on, is (in its branch of open-air cultivation) a seasonal occupation only in the northern parts of our country; but cutting firewood, quarrying, fencing, draining, poultry, rabbit and goat raising, and so on, are but slightly seasonal, even in the North. Making cold frames, hot beds, green houses, mushroom caves, making shelters, repairing and so on, give ample winter occupation to any cultivator who is allowed to do them. The other objection is that we need a "reserve of unemployed people;" or, in another form, that "the labor people are too d—— independent now; and if they get at the land, we won't be able to do anything with them."

Of course, the labor leaders generally, and some others, will have none of it (there are some exceptions) because they "think" that as their business is with strikes and percentages of wages and relief a free field for labor will spoil their jobs. "Great is Diana of the Ephesians."

The "normal unemployment" in these United States is usually estimated at from one to two millions of persons. Take as the maximum of probable unemployment the highest "estimates of the President's Unemployment Conference of 1921, five and a half millions of persons." Suppose that we establish the estimated number of war-gardens as civil-war gardens. These should be made with permanent tenure and would employ, directly and indirectly, at least one worker each. Even without opening our boundless natural resources, including all land, would not both our "normal" or abnormal unemployment problem be solved?

It is not "economics" nor God that starves these children and women. You and I, land grabbers, or supporters of the system, are starving them by withholding from them Nature's provision, the opportunity to draw bread in the sweat of their brows from the earth.

Stupid selfishness, as much of the workers as of the employers, does not see this. Most of our charity people take good care that they shall not see it; for when the brother to the ox does see it, God help monopoly of the earth.

Bolton Hall

New York

Constructive Relief—a Correction

To the Editor: In his article, The Finale of Near East Relief, published in The Survey of February 15, Bruno Lasker, referring to the present $6,000,000 drive of the Near East Relief Committee, makes the statement that "in entering upon an intensive campaign for support of this final stage of its activities, Near East Relief might boast that it is the only one of the American war relief agencies to have worked through the logical sequence of its program to a dignified conclusion."

That the Near East Relief Committee is not indulging in any such boasts must be due to its familiarity with the facts which are at variance with Mr. Lasker's statement. The Joint Distribution Committee organized primarily for the relief of the war-stricken Jewish populations in eastern European countries and in other parts of the world, is today engaged in the final stage of a $25,000,000 drive, after having spent nearly $60,000,000 for the relief not only of Jewish war sufferers, but of large numbers of their non-Jewish neighbors.

Nor has the Joint Distribution Committee confined itself to mere "relief," by which is usually meant the feeding and clothing of people in need. Like the Near East Relief, the Joint Distribution Committee, too, has "worked through the logical sequence of its program to a dignified conclusion." In the case of the Near East Relief, the "working through the logical sequence," according to the information contained in Mr. Lasker's article, consists in looking after some 32,000 children "until they are not only self-supporting, but also mature enough to require no longer an adult's guidance."

In the case of the Joint Distribution Committee, the work has involved, first, the care of about 23,000 children in Europe and Palestine until they no longer required assistance, in addition to many thousands of children in Soviet Russia; in the second place, a comprehensive program of constructive relief, by which is meant restoring the war-stricken populations which were deprived of their means of livelihood to a condition where they can take care of themselves. This program of activities includes the maintenance of trade schools, where adults as well as the young are taught useful trades; the settlement of thousands of Jewish families on land with the necessary imparting of preliminary training to a city-bred people in modern methods of agriculture; supplying them with the latest types of American agricultural machinery, tractors, etc.; establishment of hospitals, clinics, nurses' training schools, supplemented by an extensive scheme of preventive medical work.

To make this work most effective, this relief is administered through local committees of representative men of the communities for whose benefit it is intended, thus adding training in self-government and organization to the other benefits. Much of this help is rendered through cooperative organizations which advance the money to their members, mechanics, tradesmen, and farmers, in the form of loans which, as they are being repaid, are used over and over again to help other thousands to get on their feet. In this manner much of the constructive relief is given in the form of cooperative self-help, avoiding the demoralization of a purely philanthropic charity.

All of which is not recited for the purpose of minimizing the splendid work of the Near East Relief, but by way of correcting a misstatement, no doubt unintentional, that the Near East Relief is the only war relief agency which has worked its program to a logical sequence.

New York

N. I. Stone

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To the Editor: That various ethnic groups in the United States are continuing their efforts on behalf of their own people in different parts of the world will not be news to your readers. And it does not in the least falsify my statement concerning the Near East Relief. Mr. Stone's letter serves well, however, to recall the extraordinary energy and far-sightedness with which the Jewish war-time relief agency has developed and transformed its operations. The Joint Distribution Committee has certainly set up new models of applied democracy which other organizations will do well to study.

New York Bruno Lasker

Greek Hospitals

To the Editor: Here also is a little effort which "intelligent Americans" have not "permitted to vanish." Greece is a poor little country, harassed by necessary taxes, and the emergency of refugees is still on. Other agencies are dealing valiantly with the industrial and educational problems that arose when over a million people, mostly women and children, were thrown into Greece, the only country willing to receive the exodus of the Christian population from Turkey. The health problems must necessarily remain serious for a long time to come. In the nine months from January to October, 1927, the American Women's Hospitals in Greece have treated nearly three thousand in-patients and 37,000 out-patients. Lack of funds has compelled the closing of one hospital, and the committee will greatly regret having the work curtailed to any further extent. Our New York headquarters is 637 Madison Avenue (near Fifty-ninth Street). But I hope that all Survey readers traveling in these parts will avail themselves of our standing invitation to visit the hospitals and clinics. Dr. Elizabeth B. Thelberg, president of the Medical Women's National Association, in her recent survey of our work, strongly recommended that it be continued for at least two more years.

Jane E. Robbins, M.D.

3 *Kipou Street, Athens, Greece*

MEMPHIS AND THE CHANGING SOUTH
(*Continued from page* 89)

apparent that a new epoch of southern history is in the making. It is charged with dazzling possibilities, and it stands as a unique opportunity for social engineering which is without parallel in American history.

If southern people will see the new economic order as but the foundation of a new social order that may be largely reshaped as they choose, they can direct the course of developments and build as they will the New South.

Hitherto social work has been little better than taboo in some sections of the South. To many it suggested the Freedman's Bureau and kindred ideas. Thus mutual aid has persisted long after it ceased to meet adequately the social problems of a complex society. Some southern states are doing practically nothing about feeblemindedness, and some with a population of one million Negroes have not a single child-caring institution for Negroes. On the other hand, there are some excellent examples of pioneering, and it may be boldly stated that some valuable contributions to social technology have been made by the South. These facts only emphasize the need and opportunities in the social field which now confront southern people. While in point of time the South has been slow to employ the social worker or even to teach the social sciences, this backwardness today is but a virgin field for policies and techniques that have been tested elsewhere.

The benefits of the meeting of the National Conference in Memphis will be in proportion to the attendance of southern

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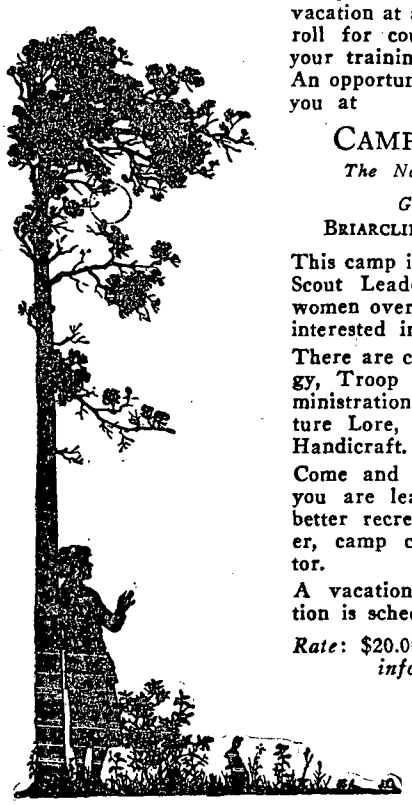

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May 3rd **GENERAL PROGRAM** May 4th

Luncheon — City Missions — Rev. James H. George.

3 p.m. Relation Between Social Work and the Church —Dr. F. J. Bruno, the Rev. P. M. Grant.

Luncheon — What Should Visitor Look for in Local Jail—Dr. H. H. Hart.

3 p.m. Is Sin Passé?—the Rev. N. B. Nash—Prof. of Ethics, Episcopal Theological School, Cambridge.

CHURCH PROGRAM

May 2-5

Plans and Methods of Social Service in the Church.

DEVOTIONAL PROGRAM

7:30 a.m. Daily Celebration Holy Communion—Calvary Church.

May 5th—8 p.m.—Service of Preparation at St. Mary's Cathedral.

May 6th—8 a.m. Holy Communion—St. Mary's Cathedral.

11 a.m. Special Service St. Mary's Cathedral—Sermon by Bishop Casady, Chaplain.

leaders. Institutions, civic organizations, luncheon clubs, professional societies, churches, colleges, and universities should see to a full and representative attendance. The South can now adopt policies of prevention that will save millions of dollars in remedial expense and effect vast social conservation. And Southerners will give the conference a great southern welcome.

HOUNDING THE YELLOW DOG

(*Continued from page* 87)

equalize competitive conditions, still sought to win the men so pledged to join its membership, the company went to the courts for an injunction. The U. S. District Court for the Northern District of West Virginia granted first a temporary, then a perpetual injunction, restraining the union from disturbing the "yellow dog." Later, the Circuit Court of Appeals reversed the district court and threw the "yellow dog" out. Later still, the U. S. Supreme Court, three members dissenting, reinstated him.

Thus the union found itself morally bound to organize these newer fields, and legally forbidden to do so. Oddly enough, the operators in the older fields who, following the tradition inaugurated by Mark Hanna, recognized the union as a beneficent influence not only in stabilizing the industry but also in Americanizing the multitudes of immigrants who entered the mines, never joined the union in pleading its cause before the courts. Instead of supporting the union in its efforts to extend union conditions—which they had jointly approved—to the non-union fields, many of these operators declared the terms of the Jacksonville agreement destructive of profits and defunct; and even before the agreement's expiration, they entered into individual agreements with men who were willing to work at or near the non-union scale. In criticizing the union, as I have done, for its inflexible stand on the Jacksonville scale (originally the work of a presidential commission), these facts must be given full weight. The "yellow dog" at the gates of the non-union fields, with which the union was left to deal single-handed, made a "constructive" policy exceedingly difficult.

Now comes the Supreme Court of New York County and gives the tail of the "yellow dog" a new twist. For years, the Amalgamated Association of Street and Electric Railway Employes of America has attempted to lure employes of the Interborough Rapid Transit Company from their pledged allegiance to the Brotherhood of the I. R. T. Company Employes. Following the precedent set in the Hitchman case and later reenforced by many court decisions—notably the decision of the U. S. District Court for the Southern District of West Virginia, in the case of the Red Jacket Consolidated Coal & Coke Co. vs. John L. Lewis—the Interborough Company moved to have enjoined not only the Amalgamated Association, but also the entire American Federation of Labor, from in any way attempting to lure its employes from their allegiance to the company union. Justice Wasservogel of the Supreme Court of New York County, in February denied this motion. To be sure, he stressed the inequity of a clause in this particular individual or "yellow dog" contract by which "unlimited and practically unhampered power to discharge employes is given to the company . . ." and which "purports to bind the employe for two years, while the employer is not in substance subject to a reciprocal obligation." But in taking cognizance of the majority opinion of the U. S. Supreme Court in the Hitchman case, Justice Wasservogel relied upon the opinions of the New York Court of Appeals with respect to the rule of law there involved. The New York Court of Appeals had held that "the defendants have the right to induce plaintiff's employes to join the Amalgamated Association

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though that may involve the termination of their employment."

In essence, the reasoning of this court was that of Justices Holmes, Clarke and Brandeis in the minority opinion in the Hitchman case. Thus the "yellow dog" would seem to be hounded out of the jurisdiction of the New York courts.

In an address before the American Bar Association, printed in The Survey for August 15, 1924, former Senator George Wharton Pepper, discussing the history of the use of the injunction in labor disputes and pointing out that many of its most extreme applications have been provoked by the "yellow dog," said that the "problem is not primarily the problem of changing the point of view of federal judges but of determining what the community attitude toward organized labor is to be." In other words, a distinguished lawyer, out of his respect for our courts and his concern for their prestige, suggests that here is a problem in which the courts must in the long run be guided by prevailing public opinion. And he points out that the very existence of the organized labor movement is at stake. If the doctrine of Conspiracy that has fathered the "yellow dog" prevails, the unions will be forced to a war for existence against majority public opinion and the decree of the courts. Even while the "yellow dog" finds shelter in the far-reaching jurisdictions of the federal courts, organized labor is harassed if not completely checkmated in its development of a constructive program of employer-labor cooperation. Will public opinion decide for or against organized labor, for or against the "yellow dog"?

In a very fundamental sense, a leading issue—possibly the leading issue in such industrial conflicts as that which has brought untold losses to the operators in the bituminous coal fields and caused embittered suffering to thousands of miners and their families—is being fought out, not in the coal fields, but in your mind, friend reader, and mine.

THE CHEST AND DEMOCRACY

(*Continued from page* 90)

many large contributions depends upon the popular attitude. Success or defeat of social programs hinges upon that twenty to forty per cent. *The public has veto power on funds.*

Mr. Lee chooses to call the money-raising effort of the community chest a tax collection. I ask him, is there any more effective way of securing democratic control of the destiny of institutions than this power of voting or vetoing taxes? There is not. And there is nothing more shocking to the smugness, complacency, and illusions of the managers if they think they are still in control of policy. In such a referendum the small giver speaks his mind in no uncertain language. There is no question whatever that the public as represented by these small givers has taken control of policy. And policy is the handle-bar of destiny. Mr. Lee demands my authority. Experience, not only my own, but that of many other community chest people as reported in their conferences.

The community chest has paid social work a great compliment indeed by assuming that its elemental factors are of such vital import to the people that they may be trusted with such power. This is the crux of the difference between the distinguished gentleman from Boston and myself, and I would let the argument end there if it were not for a few errors of fact in his article that need correcting for the good of a movement to which I have devoted fifteen years of service.

First, he says the increase in givers in community chest cities comes "about largely by raising money from the children in the schools and from working people through their employers." He condemns the practice with vigor, and says, "Raising money in the schools is forbidden in Boston, except for the Red Cross. It should be absolutely forbidden everywhere for it means a hold-up." Virtue triumphant in Boston—

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MOLLIE CONDON, *Extension Manager*

except for the Red Cross! Why this exception? We refuse to permit solicitation of school children in Detroit for any purpose, including the Community Fund *and* the Red Cross.

He protests against raising money from workers in stores and factories through their employers. I'll shake hands with him there also, detesting the practice as much as he does. We do not permit employers or superior officers of any kind to solicit employes in Detroit. Yet some cities do. In spite of these concessions, Mr. Lee's conclusions on the growth of givers is incorrect. In the main, wherever the hold-up method of employe soliciting prevails, the ratio of one giver to every eight persons in the population is considerably increased. One city that holds up employes and solicits school children has a ratio of one giver in three of the population. In Detroit we maintain the ratio of one in eight as was mentioned in November without the hold-up and without soliciting school children—even for the Red Cross. Cincinnati betters that ratio and does all of its soliciting in the homes of the people. The community chest does increase the number of givers in a remarkable way. There is a whole library of evidence to that effect.

MR. LEE'S next error is in the assumption that the community chest does not increase the number of large givers in a community. The evidence in the statistics of city after city is quite to the contrary, both numbers of large gifts and amounts of gifts being increased. For example, 429 givers gave the Detroit Community Fund, in 1926, gifts of $1,000 and over, totaling $1,635,083.50. In 1927, the givers of $1,000 and over were 457 and the amount of their gifts was $2,167,783.45.

Probably Mr. Lee bases this assertion upon information that he must have collected prior to publishing an anti-community chest pamphlet some years ago. In that pamphlet he compares giving in Boston to giving in Cleveland, Detroit, San Francisco, and Los Angeles. He does not think that Boston shows to a disadvantage. One point that he missed then and misses now is the relationship the number of givers of large sums of money has or should have to the number of people possessing large sums of money in our communities. Information available seems to show that Greater Boston has twice as many people worth $100,000 and over as Greater Cleveland; more than twice as many as Greater Detroit; nearly three times as many as San Francisco; and more than three times as many as Los Angeles. Mr. Lee's attack on the workingman gift would lead me to believe that we both think large giving should be a matter of surplus wealth. If that conception is sound, the generosity of the rich communities of Boston, Chicago, and New York is not comparable with the generosity of the rich communities of our large federated cities. Before any one has a chance to misunderstand that assertion, let me say that there are rich individuals and corporations in these three communities as generous as any one else. My comparison is between groups. My authorities are the statistics of giving in the federated cities exchanged among them, and the published surveys of giving in Boston and Chicago. My evidence for New York is only fragmentary and I admit the conclusion for that one city may be wrong.

The third error pertains to the suppression of directors of social agencies under federation dominance and a dismal prophecy that the quality will deteriorate. Experience has proven Mr. Lee's fears on this point to be an illusion so far. In several cities where I know many agencies and many directors, the quality is as good as ever, the loyalty to the agency not a whit lessened, and the loyalty to, and intelligent outlook upon the whole social structure far greater. I have watched this aspect of federation with care and know of no place where the quality of the directorate has deteriorated.

The fourth error is a feared probability that endowments

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will not grow under federation. New York, Philadelphia and Boston are the great endowment centers, as they should be, because surplus wealth has been accumulating there in large quantities over a longer period than in other parts of the country. Endowment growth depends first upon surplus, and secondarily upon the age and mellowness of wealth. Even in these cities endowment growth has not been rapid and has always been irregular. Indianapolis, Buffalo, Cincinnati and Detroit are four cities where handsome endowment gifts have been made in reasonable numbers since federation began. The evidence is that endowments in federated cities are growing, not as spectacularly as current funds have grown, but as satisfactorily as could be expected. The evidence is further that legacies become endowments in federated cities, and are not used for current expenses as they frequently are in non-federated cities.

Mr. Lee's stated reason for his surmise that endowments will not grow is in keeping with his twisting of the implications of the Vanderbilt quotation and his perversions of the meaning of the phrases "so-called higher things of life" and "free-booting emotionalist," and several other concepts as they were used in the Graphic article.

Error number five is this: "The chests seem also to have reduced the amount received by social agencies in fees and dues from their beneficiaries." I know of no city where the earnings have actually fallen below pre-federation days. I know of only three cities where the ratio of earnings to total income has been reduced. In my own city earnings have tripled, and will rise again by nearly a million dollars when a number of buildings now being erected are finished. No one must be permitted to compare gross earnings from clients in large cities east of the Alleghenies, with earnings in the giant new communities of the West, for the simple reason that the eastern cities got many buildings long before the western towns grew up, such as the western towns must still secure. We are getting our buildings now, and getting them in a shorter period than the East required. Community chests are responsible for that, sometimes directly and sometimes indirectly, and their budgeting authorities may be trusted to look after satisfactory earnings of these new buildings as the plans for these buildings are drawn.

THE real significance of the continuing statistical system inaugurated by the community chest movement completely escapes our Boston critic. We would expect it to baffle any one with a paternal outlook on social work. He is innocent enough to offer as a substitute the extremely valuable, innumerable and fragmentary surveys and bits of research made all over America. The two things are so different, and so supplemental one to another.

Mr. Lee misses also the burning import of the fact that in accepting the community chest with all that it implies, including statistical concentration and democratic control of destiny, American social work becomes the first organized department of unofficial life to set boldly about the task of curing "the tragedy of waste" within itself. Hail to an institution whose workers have put their own self-interest aside and have taken that important step forward in a profligately wasteful nation. Sooner or later, business, religion, education, and medicine must come to the same merciless contempt for waste.

Joseph Lee has been a useful force in social betterment, a man who exemplifies the real virtues of citizenship, a leader in practical righteousness, a true American nobleman. I give him full credit for his generosity, his idealism, and his devotion to the common weal. I take my hat off to him in passing by. But I prefer to go by, and to keep my faltering steps and my face pointed in the difficult direction of a promising future for our common love, social work.

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(*Continued from page* 131)

trations. Price $3.00, through The Survey or from the Russell Sage Foundation, 130 East 22nd St., New York.

FIRST NATIONAL CONFERENCE ON OLD AGE SECURITY, of which Abraham Epstein is secretary, was held in New York, April 10.

PURCHASING BUREAU of the Boston Council of Social Agencies has arranged for all models of the Remington and Noiseless typewriters to be supplied to its constituent members at liberal discounts from list price.

WITH THE COOPERATION of the Pennsylvania State Department of Welfare and the private social agencies of the state, and backed by a grant from the Commonwealth Fund and special contributions, a study of welfare statistics in Pennsylvania is being made by Ralph G. Hurlin, director of the Department of Statistics, Russell Sage Foundation.

WESTCHESTER WELFARE FOUNDATION, which will handle millions provided in wills of millionaires in Westchester for welfare work, has become affiliated with the New York Community Trust.

NEW JERSEY CONFERENCE of social work has inaugurated the publication of a legislative bulletin. Issued at intervals throughout the legislative sessions, it gives a digest of public welfare bills being presented and a roster of legislative committee members.

BROOKLYN JUVENILE PROTECTIVE ASSOCIATION is creating a fund of $5,000 to be called the Judge Wilkin Scholarship Fund, in honor of its founder, to help a poor but promising boy or girl to further education. Contributions should be sent to Brooklyn Juvenile Protective Association, 4 Court Square, Brooklyn, N. Y.

OMAHA is following the example of other cities in grouping its downtown social agencies in a central building—the Associated Charities, Girl Scouts, Social Service Exchange, Community Chest and Council of Social Agencies.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., Tuberculosis Association recently celebrated its twenty-fifth anniversary. Mary Greeley Smith has been executive secretary since 1904, the record of service for executive secretaries now in tuberculosis work.

LITERATURE

CHILD HEALTH IN SMALL COMMUNITIES—Bulletins describing the Commonwealth Fund child health demonstrations in small cities and rural counties. No 2, Marion County, Ore. No. 4, General review of four demonstrations. No. 5, Fargo, N. D. No. 6, Rutherford County, Tenn. Mailed free on application to Director of Publications, Room 1648, 370 Seventh Avenue, New York.

Elections and Appointments

MATTHEW ADAMS, now state superintendent Children's Home Society, Los Angeles.

HERSCHEL ALT, formerly with Juvenile Protective Association, Los Angeles, now director of field work Louisville and Jefferson County Children's Home, Ky.

EDITH AUGUSTINE, formerly with Family Welfare Society, Bridgeport, Conn., now in Ames, Ia., substituting as Gertrude Vaile's assistant.

LOUISE FRANKLIN BACHE, formerly with Syracuse Health Demonstration, now publicity secretary, National Probation Association, succeeding Carolyn Boone, resigned.

CLYDE BAIRD, now executive secretary Red Cross Chapter, Pointe Coupee Parish, La.

LESLIE BAKER, formerly of the Regional Plan of New York and Its Environs, now on the staff of the John Price Jones Corporation.

R. B. BARNHART, now executive secretary, Red Cross Chapter, Marksville, La.

ROBERT COOPER BARR, formerly of the Regional Plan of New York and Its Environs, now on the staff of the John Price Jones Corporation.

DORA BECK, formerly superintendent of public welfare, Harnett County, N. C., now in El Dorado, Ark., doing special work in connection with juvenile court, under direction of Mrs. Katherine Gibson, supervisor of juvenile courts of the state.

MAMIE L. BENETT, now secretary, Social Service Federation, Walla Walla, Wash.

CAROLINE BOONE, now apointed general field representative for the Red Cross in Arkansas.

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ROBERT A. BRAYSHAW, has been transferred from St. Elizabeth's Hospital, Washington, D. C., where he has been assisting with recreational work, for the Red Cross, to Parris Island, South Carolina, to replace John W. Clark as field director. Mr. Clark has been transferred to Quantico, Va.

FLORENCE BROMBERGER, formerly executive secretary, A.R.C., Kelso, Wash., now county social worker, San Luis Obispo County, Calif., succeeding Winifred Anne McNey.

MYRA VAN NOSTRAND BROWN, formerly in Los Angeles, now secretary in charge of family work in Marion County, Ia.

LOUIS M. BROWN, now chest executive, Glens Falls, N. Y.

VIVA BRUCE, formerly with Alameda, Calif., Social Service Board, now with Catholic Welfare Society, Newark, N. J.

HELEN CAMPBELL, now on the staff of the Finance Department of the New York Charity Organization Society.

H. C. CHANDLER, now executive secretary, Community Chest, Beaumont, Tex.

GEORGIANA CORDEN, formerly California State Supervisor of School Attendance, now chief supervisor, Public Dance Hall Committee, San Franciso Center.

WALTER CRADDOCK, formerly with the Family Service Organization, Louisville, Ky., now executive secretary, Red Cross, Vidalia, La.

COLLETTE CUMMISKEY, now executive secretary, Bradford, Pa., Community Chest.

W. F. DILLINGHAM, president of the Oahu Railway & Land Co., has been elected president of the newly organized Honolulu Council of Social Agencies. George F. Hamilton, executive secretary of the United Welfare Fund (Community Chest) is scretary of the Honolulu Council.

JESSIE DOWNER, now executive secretary, Red Cross field director for Mississippi County, Missouri, with headquarters at Charleston.

KEENER F. EUTSLER, now a Red Cross field director in War Service with headquarters in Washington, D. C.

MARY FERGUSON, formerly director of Girl Scouts, Santa Barbara, now director of Girl Scouts, Portland, Ore.

ANNE C. GALWAY, formerly Red Cross hospital social worker at Nat. Soldiers' Home, Sawtelle, Calif., now with Letterman General Hospital, San Francisco.

GENROSE GEHRI, formerly secretary of American Guild of Health, Cleveland, Ohio, now court worker Church Mission of Help, New York City.

MARY A. GOBLE, now executive secretary, Morris Community Chest, Morristown, N. J., succeeding Fred H. Lawton.

FRANK GRAYSON, now executive secretary, Red Cross Chapter, Opelousas, La.

VALENTINE GRIFFITHS, formerly with Family Welfare, Bridgeport, Conn., now on the staff of New York Church Mission of Help.

HAROLD R. HANCE, now with the Michigan Tuberculosis Association as staff artist.

RENA HEAGEN, now tuberculosis nurse for Muskingum County, Ohio, and executive secretary Muskingum County Public Health Council, succeeding Mrs. H. C. Milligan, resigned.

(*Continued on page* 141)

STATEMENT OF THE OWNERSHIP, MANAGEMENT, CIRCULATION, ETC., REQUIRED BY THE ACT OF CONGRESS OF AUGUST 24, 1912, of The SURVEY, published semi-monthly at New York, N. Y., for April 1, 1928.

State of New York, } ss.
County of New York, }

Before me, a Commissioner of Deeds, in and for the State and county aforesaid, personally appeared John D. Kenderdine, who, having been duly sworn, according to law, deposes and says that he is the business manager of The SURVEY, and that the following is, to the best of his knowledge and belief, a true statement of the ownership, management (and if a daily paper, the circulation), etc., of the aforesaid publication, for the date shown in the above caption, required by the Act of August 24, 1912, embodied in section 411, Postal Laws and Regulations, printed on the reverse side of this form, to wit:

1. That the names and addresses of the publisher, editor, managing editor, and business manager are: Publisher, Survey Associates, Inc., 112 East 19 Street, New York City; Editor, Paul U. Kellogg, 112 East 19 Street, New York City; Managing Editor, Arthur Kellogg, 112 East 19 Street, New York City; Business Manager, John D. Kenderdine, 112 East 19 Street, New York City.

2. That the owner is: (If owned by a corporation, its name and address must be stated and also immediately thereunder the names and addresses of stockholders owning or holding one per cent or more of total amount of stock. If not owned by a corporation, the names and addresses of the individual owners must be given. If owned by a firm, company, or other unincorporated concern, its name and address, as well as those of each individual member, must be given.) Survey Associates, Inc., 112 East 19 St., New York City, a non-commercial corporation under the laws of the State of New York with over 1,900 members. It has no stocks or bonds. President, Robert W. deForest, 30 Broad Street, New York, N. Y.; Vice-Presidents, Julian W. Mack, 1224 Woolworth Building, New York, N. Y.; V. Everit Macy, "Chilmark," Scarborough-on-Hudson, N. Y.; Robert Hallowell, 112 East 19 Street, New York, N. Y.; Secretary, John P. Gavit, 112 East 19 Street, New York, N. Y.; Treasurer, Arthur Kellogg, 112 East 19 Street, New York, N. Y.

3. That the known bondholders, mortgagees, and other security holders owning or holding 1 per cent or more of total amount of bonds, mortgages, or other securities are: (If there are none, so state.) None.

4. That the two paragraphs next above, giving the names of the owners, stockholders, and security holders, if any, contain not only the list of stockholders and security holders as they appear upon the books of the company but also, in cases where the stockholder or security holder appears upon the books of the company as trustee or in any other fiduciary relation, the name of the person or corporation for whom such trustee is acting, is given; also that the said two paragraphs contain statements embracing affiant's full knowledge and belief as to the circumstances and conditions under which stockholders and security holders who do not appear upon the books of the company as trustees, hold stock and securities in a capacity other than that of a bona fide owner; and this affiant has no reason to believe that any other person, association, or corporation has any interest direct or indirect in the said stock, bonds, or other securities than as so stated by him.

[Signed] JOHN D. KENDERDINE, Business Manager

Sworn to and subscribed before me this 21st day of March, 1928.

[Seal] MARTHA HOHMANN, Commissioner of Deeds, City of New York. New York Co. Clerk's No. 184. New York Co. Register's No. 28079. My Commission expires May 25, 1928.

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THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF HOSPITAL SOCIAL WORKERS—18-20 E. Division St., Chicago, Ill. Miss Helen Beckley, Executive Secretary.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR OLD AGE SECURITY—Aim: To promote through legislation adequate provisions for the dependent aged in the United States. Bishop Francis J. McConnell, president. A. Epstein, executive secretary, 104 Fifth Ave., New York City.

AMERICAN BIRTH CONTROL LEAGUE, INC.—Margaret Sanger, President, 104 Fifth Avenue, New York City. Purpose: To teach the need for birth control to prevent destitution, disease and social deterioration; to amend laws adverse to birth control; to render safe, reliable contraceptive information accessible to all married persons. Annual membership, $2.00 to $500.00. Birth Control Review (monthly) $2.00 per year.

AMERICAN HOME ECONOMICS ASSOCIATION—Alice L. Edwards, executive secretary, 617 Mills Bldg., Washington, D. C. Organized for betterment of conditions in home, school, institution and community. Publishes monthly Journal of Home Economics; office of editor, 617 Mills Bldg., Washington, D. C.; of business manager, 101 East 20th St., Baltimore, Md.

AMERICAN SOCIAL HYGIENE ASSOCIATION—370 Seventh Ave New York. To provide a better understanding of the social hygiene movement; to advance sound sex education, to combat prostitution and sex delinquency; to aid public authorities in the campaign against the venereal diseases; to advise in organization of state and local social-hygiene programs. Annual membership dues $2.00 including monthly journal.

AMERICAN SOCIETY FOR THE CONTROL OF CANCER—Dr. George A. Soper, managing director, 25 West 43rd Street, New York. To collect, collate and disseminate information concerning the symptoms, diagnosis, treatment and prevention. Publications free on request. Annual membership dues, $5.00.

ASSOCIATED GUIDANCE BUREAU, INC.—16 East 53rd Street, New York. Telephone: Plaza 9512. A non-sectarian, non-philanthropic child guidance bureau, employing highest social work standards. Supplies, trains, and supervises carefully selected governesses, tutors, companions, and play leaders. For information address Jess Perlman, Director.

THE BOY CONSERVATION BUREAU—90 West Broadway. Suggests all-the-year-round Home Schools for needy boys. Tel. Walker 0313. E. W. Watkins, Exec. Sec'y.

CHILD WELFARE COMMITTEE OF AMERICA, Inc.—730 Fifth Avenue, New York. To secure home life for normal dependent children in preference to institutions; to secure Mothers' Allowance laws in states having none; to urge adequate appropriations for home aid; to promote proper laws affecting adoption, boarding out and placing out of dependent children; to aid in the enforcement of these laws. States Council of Committee comprises volunteer representatives in practically every state. Sophie Irene Loeb, President; Governor Alfred E. Smith, Honorary President; Margaret Woodrow Wilson, First Vice-President; Edward Fisher Brown, Executive Secretary.

CHILD WELFARE LEAGUE OF AMERICA—C. C. Carstens, director. 130 E. 22nd Street, New York City. A league of children's agencies and institutions to secure improved standards and methods in their various fields of work. It also cooperates with other children's agencies, cities, states, churches, fraternal order and other civic groups to work out worth-while results in phases of child welfare in which they are interested.

THE CHILDREN'S VILLAGE, INCORPORATED—Dobbs-Ferry-on-Hudson, New York. A national, non-sectarian training school scientifically equipped for the study, education and development of problem boys and girls, on commitment and by private arrangement—ages 7 to 16. Supported largely by voluntary contributions. For further information address Leon C. Faulkner, Managing Director.

COUNCIL OF WOMEN FOR HOME MISSIONS—105 East 22d St., New York. Florence E. Quinlan, Executive Secretary. Composed of 23 Protestant national women's mission boards of the United States and Canada. Purpose: To unify effort by consultation and cooperation in action.
- Work among Farm and Cannery Migrants, Summer service for college students, Laura H. Parker, Executive Supervisor.
- Religious Work directors in Government Indian Schools.
- Bureau of Reference for Migrating People, follow-up of New Americans.

EYE SIGHT CONSERVATION COUNCIL OF AMERICA—E. W. Wallace, President; Guy A. Henry, General-Director, Times Bldg., New York. Conducts a national educational campaign to promote eye hygiene. Urges correction of eye defects, protection against hazards, proper lighting. Comprehensive publications—lantern slides—lecture material. Cooperation of social agencies invited.

FEDERAL COUNCIL OF THE CHURCHES OF CHRIST IN AMERICA—Constituted by 28 Protestant communions. Rev. C. S. Macfarland and Rev. S. M. Cavert, Gen. Sec's; 105 E. 22nd St., N. Y. C.
- Dept. of Research and Education, Rev. F. E. Johnson, Sec'y.
- Commissions: Church and Social Service, Rev. W. M. Tippy, Sec'y; International Justice and Goodwill; Rev. S. L. Gulick, Sec'y; Church and Race Relations: Dr. G. E. Haynes, Sec'y.

FOUNDATION FOR STUDY OF PROHIBITION AND THE NEGRO—H. J. Mason, Director, Research and Publicity. M. W. Dogan, President; I. Garland Penn, Founder.

GIRLS FRIENDLY SOCIETY IN AMERICA—15 East 40th Street, New York. Girls and women working together to uphold Christian standards of daily living in the home, in the business world, and in the community. Numbers nearly 60,000, with branches in 44 states.

HAMPTON INSTITUTE—Trains Negro youth for community service. Collegiate work in Education, Agriculture, Home Economics, Business, Library Science, Building Construction, and Summer School. Publishes the "Southern Workman." Free material concerning the Negro and race relations. James E. Gregg, principal.

THE LEAGUE TO ABOLISH CAPITAL PUNISHMENT—A national organization 104 Fifth Avenue, New York City. Dr. George W. Kirchwey, Chairman; Vivian Pierce, Executive Secretary. Organized to abolish capital punishment in every state and in the District of Columbia. Annual membership $1, $5, $10, and $100, including monthly Bulletin.

NATIONAL BOARD OF THE YOUNG WOMEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATIONS—Mrs. Robert E. Speer, president; Miss Mabel Cratty, general secretary, 600 Lexington Avenue, New York City. This organization maintains a staff of executive and traveling secretaries to cover work in the United States in 1,034 local Y. W. C. A.'s on behalf of the industrial, business, student, foreign born, Indian, Colored and younger girls. It has 159 American secretaries at work in 49 centers in the Orient Latin America and Europe.

NATIONAL CHILD LABOR COMMITTEE—Wiley H. Swift, acting general secretary, 215 Fourth Avenue, New York. To improve child labor legislation; to conduct investigation in local communities; to advise on administration; to furnish information. Annual membership, $2, $5, $10, $25 and $100 includes monthly publication, "The American Child."

NATIONAL CHILD WELFARE ASSOCIATION, INC. (est, 1912, incorp. 1914), 70 Fifth Ave., N. Y. C. (tel. Algonquin). Promotes as its chief object the building of character in the children of America through the harmonious development of their bodies, minds, and spirits. Its method is, in cooperation with other organizations, to originate and disseminate educational material in the form of posters, books, bulletins, charts, slides, and insignia. Through its "Knighthood of Youth" it provides homes, schools and church schools with a method of character training through actual practice. Officers: Dr. John H. Finley, Pres.; Charles F. Powlison, Gen. Sec'y.

THE NATIONAL COMMITTEE FOR MENTAL HYGIENE, INC.—Dr. William H. Welch, honorary president; Dr. Charles P. Emerson, president; Dr. Frankwood E. Williams, medical director; Dr. Clarence J. D'Alton, executive assistant; Clifford W. Beers, secretary; 370 Seventh Avenue, New York City. Pamphlets on mental hygiene, mental and nervous disorders, feebleminded-ness, epilepsy, inebriety, delinquency, and other mental problems in human behavior, education, industry, psychiatric social service, etc. "Mental Hygiene," quarterly, $3.00 a year; "Mental Hygiene Bulletin," monthly, $.50 a year.

Critics

TWELVE-CYLINDER CRITICS, Roy S. Durstine calls them in The Forum for January—people who "delight in seizing upon a few sensational and isolated episodes from which they can spring into a generalization."

Social work has its twelve-cylinder critics no less than medicine, law and the ministry. Their text is supplied sometimes by charlatans, sometimes by fools. The charlatan can be dealt with by legal action or organized public opinion; but what can be done to the fool—the well-meaning angel who does the right thing always in the wrong way?

One possible cure for him is the National Conference of Social Work. If, for a week at Memphis (May 2-9), he rubs shoulders with soundly trained social workers he may find the happy meeting ground of principles and practice.

Twelve-cylinder critics are clever; their satire is amusing—when somebody else is the target. Social work need not be. It's up to the fools, and their guardians.

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DIRECTORY OF SOCIAL AGENCIES

NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK—Sherman C. Kingsley, president, Chicago, Ill.; Howard R. Knight, sec'y, 277 E. Long St., Columbus, Ohio. The conference is an organization to discuss the principles of humanitarian effort and to increase the efficiency of social service agencies. Each year it holds an annual meeting, publishes in permanent form the Proceedings of the meeting, and issues a quarterly Bulletin. The fifty-fourth annual meeting of the Conference will be held in Memphis, Tenn., May 2nd-9th, 1928. Proceedings are sent free of charge to all members upon payment of a membership fee of five dollars.

NATIONAL CONGRESS OF PARENTS AND TEACHERS—Mrs. A. H. Reeve, President. Mrs. A. C. Watkins, Executive Secretary, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C. To develop cooperation between home and school, and an informed public opinion which will secure highest advantages for all children.

NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE PREVENTION OF BLINDNESS—Lewis H. Carris, Managing Director; Mrs. Winifred Hathaway, Associate Director; B. Franklin Rover, M.D., Medical Director; Eleanor P. Brown, Secretary, 370 Seventh Avenue, New York. Studies scientific advances in medical and pedagogical knowledge and disseminates practical information as to ways of preventing blindness and conserving sight. Literature, exhibits, lantern slides, lectures, charts and co-operation in sight-saving projects available on request.

THE NATIONAL TRAINING SCHOOL FOR INSTITUTION EXECUTIVES AND OTHER WORKERS—At the Children's Village, Dobbs-Ferry-on-Hudson, New York. To furnish adequate training to properly qualified people wishing to engage in, or already engaged in, institution work. Provide opportunity for carefully guided study in all phases of institution management and activities. Aims to furnish a trained personnel for child caring Institutions. The first and only school of its kind in the country. For further information address Leon C. Faulkner, Managing Director.

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF JEWISH WOMEN—Mrs. Joseph E. Friend, President; Mrs. Estelle M. Sternberger, Executive Secretary, 2109 Broadway, New York City. Program covers twelve departments in religious, educational, civic and legislative work, peace and social service. Official publication: "The Jewish Woman."

Department of Immigrant Aid and Immigrant Education, 799 Broadway, New York City. For the protection and education of immigrant women and girls. Maintains Bureau of International Service. Monthly bulletin, "The Immigrant." Florina Lasker, Chairman; Cecilia Razovsky, Secretary.

Department of Farm and Rural Work, Mrs. Elmer Eckhouse, Chairman, 5 Columbus Circle, New York City. Program of Education, recreation, religious instruction and social service work for rural communities. Bulletin: "The Rural Voice."

NATIONAL TUBERCULOSIS ASSOCIATION—370 Seventh Ave., New York. Dr. Theobald Smith, president; Dr. Linsly R. Williams, managing director. Pamphlets on methods and program for the prevention of tuberculosis. Publications sold and distributed through state associations in every state. Journal of the Outdoor Life, popular monthly magazine, $2.00 a year; American Review of Tuberculosis, medical journal, $8.00 a year; and Monthly Bulletin, house organ, free.

NATIONAL WOMEN'S TRADE UNION LEAGUE—Mrs. Raymond Robins, honorary president; Miss Rose Schneiderman, president; 311 South Ashland Blvd., Chicago, Ill. Stands for self-government in the work shop through organization and also for the enactment of protective legislation. Information given.

NATIONAL URBAN LEAGUE—For social service among Negroes. L. Hollingsworth Wood, pres.; Eugene Kinckle Jones, exec. sec'y; 17 Madison Ave., New York. Establishes committees of white and colored people to work out community problems. Trains Negro social workers. Publishes "Opportunity"—a "journal of Negro life."

PLAYGROUND AND RECREATION ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA—315 Fourth Ave., New York City. Joseph Lee, president; H. S. Braucher, secretary. To bring to every boy and girl and citizen of America an adequate opportunity for wholesome, happy play and recreation. Playgrounds, community centers, swimming pools, athletics, music, drama, camping, home play, are all means to this end.

RUSSELL SAGE FOUNDATION—For the Improvement of Living Conditions—John M. Glenn, dir.; 130 E. 22nd St., New York. Departments: Charity Organization. Delinquency and Penology, Industrial Studies, Library, Recreation, Remedial Loans, Statistics, Surveys and Exhibits. The publications of the Russell Sage Foundation offer to the public in practical and inexpensive form some of the most important results of its work. Catalogue sent upon request.

TUSKEGEE INSTITUTE—An institution for the training of Negro Youth; an experiment in race adjustment in the Black Belt of the South; furnishes information on all phases of the race problem and of the Tuskegee idea and methods; Robert R. Moton, principal; W. H. Carter, treasurer; A. L. Holsey, secretary. Tuskegee Institute, Ala.

THE WOMEN'S FOUNDATION FOR HEALTH, Inc.—370 Seventh Ave., New York. Lenna L. Meanes, M.D., Med. Dir. To create, among the apparently well, an individual and community health consciousness by interpreting the technique of the health examination and a definitely prescribed health building program with Positive Health as the ultimate goal. Official Text: Handbook on Positive Health, $1.50. Courses in Good Body Mechanics adapted to group and individual needs.

WORKERS' EDUCATION BUREAU OF AMERICA—a cooperative Educational Agency for the promotion of Adult Education among Industrial Workers. 476 West 24th Street, New York City. Spencer Miller, Jr., Secretary.

(*Continued from page* 139)

MRS. ROBERT A. HEFFNER, now assistant to Judge Robert H. Scott, judge of juvenile court, Los Angeles County.

DOROTHY JENNINGS, formerly a visitor with Family Welfare Society, Bridgeport, Conn., now with Social Service Bureau, Newark, N. J.

HILDA KLOENNE, resigned as assistant editor of Better Times to become associated with Ames & Norr, working on publicity for Cleanliness Institute.

JOHN LANDIS formerly general secretary, Family Welfare Society, Johnstown, Pa., now on the staff of the Family Welfare Association, Baltimore, Md.

ELIZABETH MARTIN, formerly on the staff of the Cleveland Public School Board, now field secretary, Camp Fire Girls.

GERTRUDE MCDOWELL, now executive secretary, Red Cross, Rayville, La.

ETHEL MORREY, formerly court worker for Church Mission of Help, now executive secretary, Protestant Big Sisters, New York.

JESSICA B. PEIXOTTO, professor of social economics, University of California, elected vice president, American Economic Association.

LEROY A. RAMSDELL, now on the faculty of the New York School of Social Work, goes to Hartford, Conn., on April 23, as secretary of the Community Chest and Council of Social Agencies, succeeding Margaret Byington, resigned.

SUE SLAUGHTER, formerly case supervisor Johns Hopkins Hospital, now general secretary, United Charities, Norfolk, Va.

SHERWOOD SMITH, formerly with National Tuberculosis Association, now executive secretary, Florida Public Health Association, Jackson, ville, Fla.

ANNA C. TITUS, formerly with Kansas City Travelers' Aid Society, now executive of Minneapolis Travelers' Aid.

DR. JAMES W. WALLACE, formerly deputy health commissioner of Iowa, now associate field director, Committee on Administrative Practice, American Public Health Association.

LULU R. WEBSTER, formerly with Associated Charities, Oakland, Cal., now executive secretary, Oakland Chapter A.R.C., succeeding Martha A. Chickering.

Resignations

MARGARET BERGEN, for eight years manager of the Social Service Bureau, Honolulu, Hawaii, has resigned. She is succeeded by Nell Findley, former assistant manager.

MARTHA A. CHICKERING, resigned as executive secretary, Oakland, Calif., Chapter, A.R.C.

MARGARET B. SMITH, has resigned from staff of National Probation Association.

ERNEST WHITE, resigned as executive secretary, San Diego Community Chest.

AMY WOOD, resigned as nursing field representative, A.R.C. for Penna. and Del.

BULLETIN BOARD

NEW YORK HOME ECONOMICS ASSOCIATION: New York. April 9. President, Anna M. Cooley, Teachers College, Columbia University.

NATIONAL URBAN LEAGUE: Philadelphia, Pa. April 10-13. Address: Eugene K. Jones, 127 East 23rd Street, New York City.

ANNUAL CONFERENCE FELLOWSHIP OF RECONCILIATION: Kansas City, Missouri. April 10-13. Address: Amy Blanche Greene, Fellowship of Reconciliation, 383 Bible House, Astor Place, New York City.

SOUTH CAROLINA GRADUATE NURSE ASSOCIATION: Florence. April 11-12. Secretary, Meyerel Engelberg, Roper Hospital, Charleston.

OHIO GRADUATE NURSE ASSOCIATION: Youngstown. April 11-13. Secretary, Mrs. Lucile Grapes Kinnell, 199 Webster Park, Columbus.

NEW JERSEY GRADUATE NURSES ASSOCIATION: Asbury Park. April 13-14. Secretary, Arabella R. Creech, 42 Bleeker Street, Newark.

INDIANA HOME ECONOMICS ASSOCIATION: Fort Wayne. April 13-14. President, Erma B. Christy, Muncie.

OHIO HOME ECONOMICS ASSOCIATION: Columbus. April 13-14. President, Miss Alice Donelly, Ohio State University, Columbus.

GEORGIA HOME ECONOMICS ASSOCIATION: Atlanta. April 13-14. President, Louise Whitehurst, 302 Victory Dr., Savannah.

TENTH BIENNIAL CONVENTION Y. W. C. A.: Sacramento, California. April 14-20. Address: Y. W. C. A., 610 Lexington Avenue, New York City.

VIRGINIA CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK: Lynchburg. April 15-17. Secretary, Arthur W. James, Richmond.

NORTH CAROLINA CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL SERVICE: Winston-Salem. April 16-18. Secretary, Harriet Herring, Chapel Hill.

KENTUCKY HOME ECONOMICS ASSOCIATION: Louisville. April 18-21. President, Alice Kinslow, Department of Education, Frankfort.

LOUISIANA STATE CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK: Baton Rouge. April 19-21. Address: Mrs. Irene F. Conrad, 40 Neron Place, New Orleans.

CONNECTICUT HOME ECONOMICS ASSOCIATION: Hartford. April 20. President, Mrs. Marion E. Dakin, Connecticut Agriculture College, Storrs.

FLORIDA HOME ECONOMICS ASSOCIATION: Miami. April 20-21. President, Dr. Jennie Tilt, Florida State College for Women, Tallahassee.

CONNECTICUT CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK: Stamford. April 22-25. Secretary, Sophie T. Fishback, 328 Atlantic Street, Room 84, Stamford.

NATIONAL CONFERENCE FOR LEAGUE OF WOMEN VOTERS: Chicago, Illinois. April 23-28. Secretary, Miss Gladys Harrison, 532—17th St., N. W., Washington, D. C.

MASSACHUSETTS HOME ECONOMICS ASSOCIATION: Cambridge. April 24. President, Agnes H. Craig, School Department, Administration Building, Springfield.

STATE GRADUATE NURSES ASSOCIATION: Tucson, Arizona. April 25-26. Secretary, Mrs. Bertha Easton, 543 W. Moreland Avenue, Phoenix, Arizona.

MISSISSIPPI HOME ECONOMICS ASSOCIATION: Jackson. April 25-27. President, Mary E. Doney, Box 10, Vicksburg.

BOYS' CLUB FEDERATION: Birmingham, Alabama. April 28-May 1. Secretary, C. J. Atkinson, 3037 Grand Central Terminal, New York City.

NATIONAL CONGRESS OF PARENTS & TEACHERS: Cleveland, Ohio. April 30-May 4. President, Mrs. A. H. Reeve, Ambler, Pa.

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF BOYS' CLUBS OF ENGLAND: Swanwick, Derbyshire. May 4. Address: 66 Avenue Chambers, Southampton Row, W.C.2.

NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK & KINDRED GROUPS: Memphis, Tennessee. May 2-9. Secretary, Howard R. Knight, 277 East Long Street, Columbus, Ohio.

NATIONAL CONFERENCE JEWISH SERVICE: Cincinnati, Ohio. May 9-13. Secretary, Samuel Goldsmith, 114 Fifth Avenue, Nek York City.

PACIFIC COAST CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK: Yosemite National Park. May 22-26. Secretary, Anita Eldridge, 55 New Montgomery Street, San Francisco, California.

MICHIGAN GRADUATE NURSE ASSOCIATION: Lansing. May 23-25. Secretary, Elizabeth Robinson, 308 Abbott Road, East Lansing.

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CLASSIFIED ADVERTISEMENTS

WORKERS WANTED

WANTED: Trained, experienced, family case worker to carry small case load and assist in case supervision. Position offers opportunities. Salary $1800.00. State age, health, religion, general education, training and experience. Send photograph with application. Address Family Welfare Bureau, 315 Sixth Street, Sioux City, Iowa.

EXECUTIVE SECRETARY for the BUREAU FOR JEWISH CHILDREN of PHILADELPHIA. Applicant should be trained Jewish social worker experienced in the child welfare field, interested in research and community organization and capable of coordinating the work of diverse agencies. State qualifications and experience in detail. BUREAU for JEWISH CHILDREN, 330 S. 9th Street, Philadelphia, Pa.

WANTED: SOCIAL CASE WORKER in Philadelphia Hospital. College graduate with either case work experience or certificate from a School of Social Work. 6070 SURVEY.

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MEN WANTED

MEN interested in advancing in the field of institution and social work are wanted as students in The National Training School for Institution Executives and Other Workers. See classified Ad on Page 143.

WORKERS WANTED

WANTED: Social service worker for general social service work—financial investigations, relief, placing, home visitations, case study, for Staff work at the Jewish Hospital and Dispensary. Apply to Executive Director, Jewish Hospital of Brooklyn, Brooklyn, New York.

WANTED: September 1. Director of clubs and class activities in large Jewish settlement and also assistant to director. 6072 SURVEY.

WANTED: Editor (woman), managing, for non-technical educational monthly. Experience in similar or related work, a rich educational and cultural background essential. Please write fully, giving education, training, experience, salary expected, etc. All communications will be confidential. 6079 SURVEY.

WANTED: An experienced Jewish family case worker. Good salary. Apply by letter, giving age, educational background and experience. Jewish Educational Institute, Kansas City, Missouri.

WANTED—Graduate nurse in child caring institution in Philadelphia. 6077 SURVEY.

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PSYCHIATRIST, interested in establishing school for Problem Children anywhere, to share financial responsibility with experienced institution executive who has studied such children for years. No interruption of present activities required. 6076 SURVEY.

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SITUATIONS WANTED

EXPERIENCED SCOUTMASTER and teacher desires position in Jewish boy camp. 6075 SURVEY.

EXECUTIVE, GRADUATE NURSE, familiar with institutional child care both dependent and delinquent, vocational guidance, adaptable, nine years managerial capacities, desires connection with orphanage or allied institution. No choice as to state. 6073 SURVEY.

YOUTH of 64 would gladly give his services part of time for his keep. Does not object to accepting small honorarium. His hobby otherwise is to act as guide and camp philosopher, liberating his and other minds of burrs, barnacles, clinkers and so forth, herewhile also working with hands to do whatever is to be done in camp, lodge, or manor. Address 6068 SURVEY.

Workers Available Now!

Social Welfare and Religious Organizations: Executive secretaries, Family Welfare workers, Club and Recreation leaders, Psychiatric Social workers, Public Health Nurses, Child Welfare workers, Church secretaries, Directors of Religious Education and Administration personnel.

Institutions: Superintendents and assistants, Children's supervisors and matrons, Teachers, Nurses, Housekeepers, Dietitians, etc.

Hospitals: Superintendents and assistants, Physicians, Trained Nurses, Medical Social workers, R.N., Dietitians, Admitting Officers, Technicians, Psychiatric Social workers, Occupational Therapists, and Office Assistants.

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